

The University of Chicago

THE DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT STATUS
OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN WESTERN
CANADA, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO THE CURRICULUM

A PART OF A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE DIVISION OF THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES IN CANDIDACY FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

1936

By
WILLIAM GRIFFITHS BLACK

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PREFATORY NOTE

This publication is the "essential portion" of the original dissertation. It contains an explanation of the purpose, scope, methods of investigation, and sources of information of the study; a general historical narrative of teacher education in each of the four provinces of Western Canada; concise statements of the more important findings of the study; and discussions concerning the major problems of teacher education in Western Canada. Chapters III to VI of the original dissertation have been omitted here, since their important findings are summarized and discussed in Chapter VII. From the Bibliography only that section has been selected which contains the list of primary sources.

The reader will find that numerous references have been made in the sections here included to materials found in tables and to statements made in the omitted chapters. Such references are especially numerous in Chapter VII. If necessary, use should be made of the complete dissertation, which is to be found in the University of Chicago Libraries.



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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to make special acknowledgment of the generous help which he has received from Dr. William S. Gray of the University of Chicago. Many useful ideas and materials were obtained from a lecture course on teacher education given by Dr. Gray in 1932. Furthermore, Dr. Gray's suggestions for the planning and writing of the dissertation have been of great value. Much assistance has also been obtained from Dr. Newton Edwards of the University of Chicago.

For their prompt response to the questionnaire inquiry and other inquiries, and for their very generous aid in the gathering of miscellaneous field data, the writer wishes to thank the heads of the university departments of education and the principals of the normal schools of the four western provinces of Canada. He also wishes to thank the officials of the four provincial departments of education for sending to him the numerous government publications which were requested, and also for replying to various letters of inquiry.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Foreword.- In Western Canada the curriculums for teacher education have undergone considerable development since they were first established several decades ago. Certain important changes have been the outcome of systematic planning, but numerous changes have come unsought, necessitated by the sheer pressure of circumstances.¹ Very few systematic studies relative to the development of teacher education have been made in this area. Two significant efforts were those represented by the Interprovincial Teacher-Training Conference of 1919² and the British Columbia School Survey of 1925.³ Since the latter date no study of broad scope has been made or even proposed. Melvin⁴ and Dyde⁵ have touched upon teacher education in Western Canada, but their descriptions are sketchy and incomplete.

The purpose and scope of the study.- The chief purpose of this study is to describe the curriculums of the normal schools and university departments of education of Western Canada and to identify the major problems of teacher education in that area. To achieve this purpose it will be necessary, 1) to narrate briefly the history of teacher education in each of the four provinces; 2) to describe and compare the present-day curriculums; 3) to compare these curriculums feature by feature with the curriculums of other countries, and to discuss them in the light of the judgments

¹Annual reports of the four provincial departments of education.

²Alberta Department of Education, Report of the Conference on Teacher-Training, Edmonton, 1919.

³J. H. Putman and G. M. Weir, Survey of the School System of British Columbia, pp. 196-234. Victoria: Provincial Department of Education, 1925.

⁴A. G. Melvin, The Professional Training of Teachers for the Canadian Public Schools. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1925.

⁵W. F. Dyde, Public Secondary Education in Canada, pp. 130-154. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1919.

of leaders in the field; and 4) to identify and discuss critically the fundamental issues relating to teacher education in western Canada.

The investigation deals chiefly with curriculum problems. The term "curriculum" is broadly interpreted in order to permit the study of such considerations as the general academic education of prospective teachers, the normal entrance and university matriculation requirements, the undergraduate courses taken by prospective teachers, the length of the curriculums for teacher education, certificate requirements, and relationships between the normal schools and the universities - considerations which have a definite bearing upon the nature of the curriculums as more narrowly understood. The financing and administration of the normal schools are matters which have not been included in the study. Problems relating to methods of instruction, size of staff, ratio of staff to student body, qualifications of instructors, buildings and equipment, supply and demand of teachers, and in-service education of teachers, are treated, incidentally, only insofar as they have a bearing upon the nature or quality of the curriculums which are offered.

The study includes the normal schools and university departments of education of all four of the western provinces of Canada (see Figure 1, page 3). The decision to study the four provinces together was based upon several considerations. These provinces are not only adjacent to each other, but their settled areas are separated from the thickly populated areas of Eastern Canada by the vast stretch of barren land of Western Ontario. Still more important is the fact that they have many political, economic, cultural, and educational relationships and that they have much in common in their historical development. They were carved one by one out of the North-West Territories. Their rapid population growth took place in the same period and largely as a result of the same influences. Their economic interests are closely interrelated, especially in the three prairie provinces. In these and many other ways they form a closely related group, and may therefore be studied as a unit advantageously. Furthermore, by including all four provinces certain broad and significant comparisons are made possible which could not be made in a study of the institutions of each province separately.

Both the normal schools and the universities have been



1.(University of Manitoba
 1.(Winnipeg Normal School

2.Brandon Normal School

3.(Saskatoon Normal School
 3.(University of Saskatchewan

4.Regina Normal School

5.Moose Jaw Normal School

6.(Edmonton Normal School
 6.(University of Alberta

7.Camrose Normal School

8.Calgary Normal School

9.(Vancouver Normal School
 9.(University of British Columbia

10.Victoria Normal School

included in the study, because in each province they participate in a more or less unified and state-supported program of teacher education. There are also many actual and potential relationships between the two groups of institutions, several of which merit careful attention. Furthermore, there are various possible developments in the future which might change these relationships. Such developments can be considered most effectively in a comprehensive study of the type proposed.

Primary sources of information.- In any historical or descriptive study chief reliance should be placed upon primary sources.¹ Such sources yielded almost all the information obtained in this investigation. Practically the only secondary materials used were the historical treatises of Begg² and those of Shortt and Doughty.³ They were used for information concerning the earliest years of development, for which no information was available in the primary sources. Investigation revealed several types of primary sources. No one type yielded all the necessary information concerning a province or institution, but when used together they proved adequate. The following types were found to be most useful:

1. The annual reports of the four provincial departments of education.⁴ These reports contained among other materials the annual statements of the normal school principals, and also general information submitted by the provincial superintendents or registrars. The statements of the principals were usually detailed in

¹C.C.Crawford, The Technique of Research in Education, pp. 49-62 and 95-117. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1928; also C. V. Langlois and C. Seignobos, Introduction to the Study of History, pp. 18 ff. and p. 42. New York: Holt, 1926.

²A. Begg, History of the North West, Vol. II and III. Toronto: Hunter, 1895.

A. Begg, History of British Columbia, pp. 464-75. Toronto: Briggs, 1894.

³A. Shortt, A. G. Doughty, and others, Canada and Its Provinces, Vols. XX and XXII. Edinburgh: Constable, 1914.

⁴The following annual reports were utilized: those of Manitoba, from 1886 to 1933 inclusive; those of Saskatchewan and Alberta, from 1906 to 1933 inclusive; and those of British Columbia, from 1874 to 1933 inclusive. The only reports not available were those of Manitoba from 1870 to 1885 and those of British Columbia from 1871 to 1873.

nature. They proved to be the most fruitful source of historical data. They also yielded much information concerning present-day practices, although this information was often incomplete. Very little information about the university curriculums was obtained from the reports of the provincial departments, although most of the major events in the evolution of the university departments were found recorded therein.

2. The syllabi of the normal schools.¹ The syllabi are published by the provincial departments of education, and their regulations are intended to apply to all the normal schools within any one province. The provincial departments of education of the prairie provinces have published syllabi frequently.² For many years the British Columbia department did not do so, the two normal school staffs formulating their own curriculums. However, in 1934 a syllabus was issued by that department.³

The normal school syllabi of Manitoba and Saskatchewan contained detailed descriptions of the courses given. However, this information was found to be of limited value, because the latest Saskatchewan syllabus had been printed in 1928 and the latest Manitoba syllabus in 1931, and many departures had been made from them since those dates. Descriptions of courses were not found in the Alberta syllabus. The syllabi of all three provinces supplied many facts concerning entrance requirements and certificates. Information of considerable historical value was found in certain of the earlier issues of the Alberta and Manitoba syllabi.⁴ The earlier Saskatchewan issues could not be obtained.

3. The calendars of the provincial universities.⁵ These calendars yielded a large amount of information concerning entrance requirements, academic courses, and courses in education. The information was of course in highly condensed form, and therefore details had to be obtained from other sources. The calendars were also valuable as sources of historical material, since all

¹See bibliography, pp. 337-339.

²Ibid.

³British Columbia Department of Education, Regulations and Courses of Study for Provincial Normal Schools. Victoria, 1934.

⁴See bibliography, pp. 337, 338.

⁵Ibid.

which had been issued since the establishment of the departments of education were available. Inquiry by questionnaire and by letter showed that most of the calendar information was accurate, although in a few instances discrepancies were found between the "paper" courses and the actual courses.

It might be assumed that a normal school syllabus or a university calendar would contain most of the main facts about the curriculum of the institution. Such however was not the case, and therefore a search was made for other sources of information. The following additional sources were found quite valuable: 1) miscellaneous publications of the provincial department of education;¹ 2) mimeographed course outlines and time-tables; and 3) miscellaneous government reports.²

Method of utilizing the above sources.- The general method employed in securing the needed information was that of careful reading and analysis, followed by the selection and recording of the facts considered significant. The importance of the facts was determined in various ways. In general, if a fact appeared to have a bearing upon a major historical development, some present-day practice found to exist in several institutions, some local practice which appeared to be unusually significant, or some one of the major problems of teacher education, then that fact was selected and recorded for later use.

Other methods of investigation and sources of information.-

1. Visits to the various institutions. As the study of documents progressed it became obvious that supplementary methods of investigation would have to be used. Since the normal school principals and the heads of the university departments had written the annual reports and were the chief members of the committees which had drawn up the various syllabi and calendars, it was decided to visit them directly and later on to send questionnaire inquiries to them. The visits enabled the investigator to look over the plant and equipment of the normal schools, to secure information from the principals concerning their various local arrangements, to obtain their views on certain phases of the cur-

¹Ibid.

²Most valuable was the Report of the Normal School Conference (Edmonton, Alberta Department of Education, 1919).

riculum, and to pave the way for the questionnaire. The questionnaire was used in the belief that the principals would give written replies with considerable deliberation and care,¹ and because it was desirable to obtain written and signed statements concerning important aspects of the work of the schools.

Visits were made to ten of the fifteen institutions of Western Canada. In Manitoba the two normal schools of Dauphin and Manitou were not visited, because of their small enrolments.² In Saskatchewan and Alberta it was thought that visits to four of the six normal schools would suffice, since all of the schools in each province were subject to the same general curriculum requirements.

Most of the visits proved to be very fruitful. Written records were made of most of the comments of the principals. In addition local mimeographed material was gathered and promise of co-operation was obtained for the filling out of the proposed questionnaire. Furthermore, the principals' opinions concerning the adequacy of their own local programs were obtained. These oral opinions were supplemented later by the opinions of the same men as recorded in their questionnaire returns.

2. Questionnaire.³ The questionnaire was made broad and comprehensive, in order that new data might be secured and that data gathered from other sources might be checked for accuracy.

The first draft was submitted to various critics, and their reactions to the questions were noted. Questions which were found to be ambiguous or too general were re-worded. The questionnaire in its final form contained the following sections:

Part A. General Information: twenty-three questions.

Part B. The Courses Offered: nine questions about each course.

¹L. V. Koos, The Questionnaire in Education. New York: Macmillan, 1928; also W. C. Schluter, How to do Research Work, pp. 84-87. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1928.

²The Manitou school was closed in 1933, and the Dauphin school in 1934 (see the Manitoba report for 1933, pp. 7 and 54; also the letter of Principal McIntosh of Winnipeg Normal School, June 16, 1934).

³The complete questionnaire will be found in the appendix, p. 321.

Part C. Observation and Practice Teaching: thirty-two questions.

Part D. Extra-Curricular Activities: thirty questions.

Part E. Additional Information: a blank sheet.

Part F. Personal Judgments: fifty-seven questions.

Copies of the questionnaire were sent to the heads of all fifteen institutions, accompanied in each case by an explanatory letter. Returns were received from twelve of the fifteen principals.¹ Nine of the ten principals who had been visited responded, as did three of the remaining principals.

3. Letters of inquiry supplementary to the questionnaire. In order to obtain the information lacking in some of the questionnaire returns, follow-up letters were sent to some of the principals. The questions asked were very specific. In addition, a supplementary set of fourteen specific questions was sent to the heads of the three university departments.² Replies were received to every letter, most of them including all the information requested.³

4. Letters to various officials. Additional information was needed concerning certificate privileges, enrolment limitation plans, impending changes in policy, and other matters. Letters of inquiry were therefore sent to the secretaries of the provincial departments of education and to the university registrars. Of the letters received in reply,⁴ eleven contained information of considerable value.

5. A general study of the social and industrial needs of Western Canada, especially of the needs which are peculiar to that area. The maintenance of elementary schools, high schools, colleges, and normal schools can obviously be justified only insofar as they meet the life needs of the people. These needs were studied in various ways, especially as they were described in cer-

¹The principals of Regina, Camrose, and Manitou Normal Schools did not make returns.

²See appendix, p. 328.

³See list of letters, p. 340 of bibliography. At that time the Department of Education of the University of Manitoba had not been established.

⁴See list of letters, p. 340.

tain editorials of the daily and weekly papers,¹ in certain articles of Canadian magazines,² in the reports of church home mission boards,³ in such educational survey reports as that of Putman and Weir⁴ and that of Learned and Wallace,⁵ and in such government reports as the annual handbook of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics⁶ and the Canada Year Book.⁷ As a result of this study certain tentative bases of interpretation were formulated, by reference to which the adequacy of the normal school curriculums could be better understood.⁸

6. A study of the broad features of the elementary and high school curriculums of the four provinces.⁹ Obviously one measure of the efficiency of the normal schools is the knowledge of the elementary school curriculums possessed by their graduates. Whether or not the latter curriculums are adequate in providing preparation for the present and future life needs of the children is a separate matter.

7. An examination of the curriculums of teacher education of other countries, especially those of the United States, Germany, Scotland, England, and France.¹⁰ In the case of the United States, the curriculums of some of the best known univer-

¹e.g. the Vancouver Daily Province, the Calgary Herald, and the Winnipeg Tribune.

²e.g. the Western Home Monthly, McLeans, and Chatelaine.

³e.g. United Church of Canada, Yearbook 1933, pp. 97-101 and 134-171. Toronto: 1934

⁴J. H. Putman and G. M. Weir, Survey of the School System of British Columbia. Victoria: British Columbia Department of Education, 1925.

⁵W. S. Learned and E. W. Wallace, Local Provision for Higher Education in Saskatchewan. New York: Carnegie Foundation for Advancement of Teaching, 1932.

⁶Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada, 1932. Ottawa, 1933.

⁷Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada Year Book, 1932. Ottawa, 1933.

⁸See pp. 13-18.

⁹See pp. 18-21.

¹⁰The most useful sources of information were the Yearbooks of the International Institute of Columbia University, Kandel's Comparative Education, Lord Eustace Percy's Yearbooks on Education, and the calendars of various English and Scottish teachers' colleges (see pp. 337-39 of bibliography).

sity schools of education were studied,¹ and also those of the state teachers' colleges as reported by the United States Office of Education.² Such information made possible a large number of comparisons with the curriculums of Western Canada.

8. A study of books and magazine articles containing the views of men recognized as leaders in the field.³ It was realized that significant features or problems could not be identified solely by comparing the practices of one normal school or province with those of another or by making comparisons between practices in Western Canada and those in some other country.

9. A study of the opinions of the normal school principals and university heads of departments of Western Canada relating to their own curriculums.⁴ These opinions were used as indicative of possible trends in the near future, inasmuch as several of the principals and heads exercise considerable influence upon provincial government policies. Many similarities and differences were discovered among their judgments. It was felt that any marked consensus or divergence of opinion was worthy of consideration.

10. An informal study of the opinions entertained by various school inspectors, principals, and teachers concerning the normal school and university curriculums. The results of this study could not be quoted, because they were not formally recorded. It was felt that in the future a systematic study of the opinions of educational workers might well be made, especially since most of these workers are graduates of the very institutions whose curriculums they are asked to appraise.

Adequacy of the sources and of the information secured.-

Adequacy of the sources and of the information secured may be appraised in terms of the following standards:

1. "Were all the primary sources of information utilized?"

¹Those of the University of Chicago, Columbia University, Stanford University, Colorado Teachers' College, and Peabody College.

²United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1929, No. 17, and Bulletin 1931, No. 20.

³See bibliography, pp. 330-336.

⁴See Questionnaire (Part F), pp. 324-327.

⁵F.M.Fling, The Writing of History, p. 39. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1920; also Schluter, op.cit., pp. 49-68 and 77-88; and C. V. Good, How to Do Research in Education, pp. 114-159. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1928.

No important sources could be found other than those which have been mentioned on the preceding pages.

2. "Were these sources adequate?"¹ The various methods of investigation yielded numerous facts, so many that a great amount of sifting was necessary. The information covered all the essential features of the study. Several facts concerning details of the curriculums were not obtained, but these were not essential. Comparisons made after the completion of the tables showed that apparently very few significant facts had been missed.

3. "Were the data checked for accuracy?"² The data from each source were checked carefully against those from other sources. On the whole most of the data were found to be accurate. Some discrepancies were discovered between the syllabus descriptions of certain courses and the descriptions of those courses as given in the questionnaire. Very few discrepancies were found between the data of successive provincial annual reports, or between the data presented within any one report by the various normal school principals of the province. The data obtained from the university calendars corresponded closely with the questionnaire data, although a few inconsistencies were discovered.

Organization of the Report

Brief sketches of the history and present-day life of the people of Western Canada are presented in Chapter II, and also an outline of the history of teacher education in each of the four provinces. These sketches provide the background for descriptions of the curriculums of the present day. The body of the dissertation consists of a phase-by-phase description and comparison of the curriculums for teacher education. Entrance requirements are described in Chapter III, the curriculums of the normal schools in Chapter IV, and those of the universities in Chapter V. Chapter VI contains a description of the relationships existing between the normal schools and the university departments. Throughout Chapters III to VI numerous comparisons are made between institutions and provinces in order to reveal the chief similarities

¹Fling, op. cit., p. 39.

²C. V. Langlois and C. Seignobos, op. cit., pp. 198 ff.; also Fling, op. cit., pp. 103-125.

and divergences in practice. In Chapter VII the fundamental issues relating to teacher education in Western Canada are identified and discussed, and the agencies responsible for research and reform are described.

CHAPTER II
GENERAL BACKGROUND AND HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION
IN WESTERN CANADA

The development of the education of teachers in Western Canada can be better appreciated if certain social and educational developments are clearly understood, such as the growth of population, the assimilation of immigrant groups, the distribution of urban and rural population, the development of the vocational, civic, and cultural life of the people, and the expansion of elementary and secondary education. These developments have in various ways conditioned the nature and the growth of teacher education. To acquire a proper understanding of the present-day curriculums for the preparation of teachers also necessitates a general study of the history of teacher education in Western Canada. It is the purpose of this chapter to present such a general background and history.

Population Growth

The population growth of Western Canada has been more rapid than that of any other large section of Canada. The population of Manitoba expanded from 25,000 in 1871 to 255,000 in 1901 and to 700,000 in 1931; that of British Columbia from 36,000 in 1871 to 178,000 in 1901 and to 689,000 in 1931; that of Saskatchewan from 91,000 in 1901 to 921,000 in 1931 (Saskatchewan and Alberta were made provinces in 1905); and that of Alberta from 73,000 in 1901 to 727,000 in 1931.¹ Such rapid growth was bound to result in various maladjustments. One of the many consequences was that for years the normal schools in each of the four provinces were over-taxed in their efforts to supply teachers for the public schools.

Prior to 1914 most of the growth in the population of

¹Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Canada, 1932, pp. 23, 25, and 27. Ottawa, 1933; A. Brady, Canada, pp. 149-174. London; Benn, 1932.

Western Canada was due to immigration.¹ Immigrants came from Eastern Canada, from the United States of America, from Great Britain, and from Northern, Central, and Southern Europe. Such people as the Doukhobors, Mennonites, and Ruthenians usually settled together and endeavored to preserve their language and customs, often resisting the processes of assimilation. Many Orientals came also, most of them settling in British Columbia. The assimilation of these diverse nationalities and cultures presented a large obligation to the various educational agencies, especially to the schools. The normal schools were called upon to train teachers imbued with a wholesome combination of national loyalty and international sympathy, teachers who were well versed both in Canadian history and geography and in European history, and who were willing to go out into the foreign settlements and endeavor to win the newcomers to the language, culture and citizenship of Canada. For a time special classes were held in Manitoba for the preparation of teachers for service in the foreign settlements.² It soon became necessary for the other three provinces to assume this responsibility also.

Distribution of Population

The distribution of population of a province affects in several ways the nature of the teacher education required. Many changes have taken place in the urban and rural distribution of the population of Western Canada. In 1901 Manitoba had a population of 255,000, 16 per cent of whom lived in Winnipeg, the only city with over 10,000 inhabitants. In the area which was later to be made the province of Saskatchewan there were 91,000 people in 1901, the largest town having only 2,000. In the area which was later to be made Alberta there were in that year 73,000 people, the largest town having only 4,000. (Already the difference in urban-rural distribution between Saskatchewan and the other two prairie provinces was becoming manifest.) In

¹A. Brady, op. cit., pp. 149-174; C. Wittke, History of Canada, pp. 279-280. New York: Knopf, 1928.

²P. 24.

British Columbia there were 179,000 people, 27 per cent of whom were living in the two largest municipalities.¹

A considerable increase in urbanization has taken place since 1901 in British Columbia, Alberta, and Manitoba, although the two latter provinces and Saskatchewan are still predominantly rural. In 1931 the population of Vancouver, the largest city of British Columbia, was 245,000, but that of Regina, the largest city of Saskatchewan, was only 53,000.² Furthermore, 301,000 or 44 per cent of the population of British Columbia lived in cities of 10,000 or more people. The corresponding figures for the other three western provinces are as follows: Alberta, 186,000 or 25 per cent; Saskatchewan, 117,000 or 13 per cent; and Manitoba, 251,000 or 36 per cent.³ It is apparent from these data that the work of preparing teachers for small-town and country schools has been very important in all four provinces from the very beginning of their history. It is also clear that this work has been of especial importance in Saskatchewan and Alberta.

Industries

With the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1885 the great economic development of the West began. Since 1858 gold and coal mining had been the chief industries of British Columbia. Following the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1885, fishing, lumbering, base-metal mining, agriculture, manufacturing, and shipping developed.⁴ In Manitoba grain growing and stock raising were at first the chief industries. In time manufacturing became important, and Winnipeg developed into a large city. From the very beginning the major industry of Saskatchewan has been grain growing and stock raising, while in Alberta grain growing, stock raising, and coal mining early assumed importance.⁵ At the present time British Columbia has the greatest variety of industries of the four provinces, ranking high in lum-

¹Canada, 1932, pp. 27-28.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

⁴A. Begg, History of British Columbia, pp. 560-568. Toronto: Briggs, 1894.

⁵A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, Canada and Its Provinces, II, 283-330. Edinburgh: Constable, 1914.

bering, mining, manufacturing, and shipping. Agriculture and mining are the two chief industries of Alberta, while agriculture, manufacturing, and distribution of commodities are the chief industries of Manitoba. Saskatchewan is the least diverse of the provinces, agriculture being the one major industry.¹

It is obvious from the foregoing statements that the rural teachers of the three prairie provinces should be fairly conversant with some of the main features of agriculture and agricultural economics. This statement applies not only to the few teachers who are to teach agriculture as a high school subject, but to other teachers as well, for they should understand, sympathize with, and enter into the life of the communities in which they teach. It is obvious, too, that the high school teachers who have anything to do with vocational guidance or prevocational training should be familiar with the chief characteristics of the major industries of their own and of the neighboring provinces. This is especially desirable in the case of the high school teachers of British Columbia, because of the diversity of the industrial life of that province. Such teachers should assume the responsibility for teaching the essential facts about the economic life of their own country.

Citizenship

Since the time of the formation of the provinces the inhabitants have been destined to obtain citizenship of at least four kinds: (1) citizenship in the local municipality, or the rural school district; (2) citizenship in the province; (3) citizenship in the Dominion; and (4) citizenship in the British Commonwealth.² How the children will enter into the obligations and the privileges of citizenship when they grow up depends very largely upon the education they receive. The social science sections of the school courses of study give evidence that the provincial superintendents of education and their advisers are becoming increasingly aware of the supreme importance of education for good citizenship.³

¹Canada, 1932, pp. 47-62, 107-17.

²Canada, 1932, Chapter III.

³See especially British Columbia Programme for Junior High Schools, 1932, pp. 21-48.

Cultural Life

Conditions of living were naturally very limited in the early pioneer days in Western Canada, and they still are limited in many localities which are remote from towns and cities. Fortunately the railways,¹ roads,² and telephone lines³ are branching out in all directions and are bringing to the majority of the rural inhabitants easier means of travel and communication. In other respects also the standards of living are rising. For example, there has been a very rapid expansion of radio service, there being in 1930-31 over 500,000 licensed owners of radio sets.⁴

Numerous local and foreign papers and periodicals enjoy a wide circulation. The number of publications may be taken as one of the criteria of culture. Available data indicate distinct improvement in this respect. In 1921 Manitoba had 141 periodicals; by 1931 the number had risen to 165.⁵ The corresponding figures for the other provinces are as follows: Saskatchewan, 184 and 191; Alberta 125 and 134; and British Columbia, 97 and 116.

Theatres are numerous, and are increasing in number. In the short period from 1928 to 1931 the annual importation of motion picture films increased from eleven million feet to sixteen million.⁶ Concerts and plays are frequent events in the larger cities.⁷ Clubs and associations are numerous and are increasing in number.⁸ Recreational facilities of both the indoor and outdoor types are rapidly improving, partly as a result of commercial initiative, partly because of stimulus coming from school boards, city councils, and other public bodies, and partly because of the interest in fostering leisure time activities which has been shown

¹Canada Year Book, 1932, p. 535.

²Ibid., pp. 565-66.

³Ibid., pp. 613-16.

⁴Ibid., p. 609.

⁵Canada, 1932, p. 186.

⁶Canada Year Book, 1932, p. 477.

⁷See for example the files of the Vancouver Daily Province.

⁸Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs, 1933, pp. 542-56. Toronto: Canadian Review Co., 1934. Also Brady, op. cit., pp. 120-46.

by numerous service clubs.¹ Public and private libraries are increasing in number. In 1931 there were 20 in Manitoba, 27 in Saskatchewan, 20 in Alberta, and 33 in British Columbia.² The libraries are also becoming steadily more adequate in the quality of their service.³ These and other facilities and activities are making possible a richer cultural life in Western Canada.⁴ It follows that one of the duties of the normal schools will be to prepare teachers who have an appreciation of high cultural standards among their pupils.

Elementary Education

In each of the provinces a public system of education was established at the very outset. For many years the people did not make sufficient use of the facilities offered to their children, but gradually their appreciation of the opportunities for education increased. In each of the provinces the improvement in attendance was remarkable. In British Columbia the percentage of attendance of the pupils enrolled in the schools rose from 63 in 1878 to 70 in 1908 and to 89 in 1932.⁵ In Alberta the percentage rose from 48 in 1908 to 82 in 1932.⁶ In Saskatchewan the percentage rose from 55 in 1908⁷ to 77 in 1932.⁸ In Manitoba the percentage rose from 48 in 1878⁹ to 57 in 1908¹⁰ and to 81 in 1932.¹¹

In all four provinces elementary education is given in

¹See for example the reports of the work of the Gyro Club of British Columbia.

²Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Survey of Libraries in Canada, 1931, p. 3. Ottawa, 1933.

³Ibid., p.9.

⁴Brady, op.cit., pp. 275-312.

⁵British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1932, p. 111.

⁶Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1932, p. 84.

⁷Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report 1908, p.17.

⁸Ibid., Report, 1932, p. 12.

⁹Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1886, p. 10.

¹⁰Ibid., Report, 1909, p. 7.

¹¹Ibid., Report, 1932, p. 67.

eight grades,¹ the curriculum consisting of reading, literature, oral and written composition, grammar, spelling, writing, arithmetic, hygiene, citizenship, history, geography, nature study, drawing and handwork, music, and physical education.² Household science is not commonly given in the elementary schools of Alberta, and is given chiefly as "sewing" in Manitoba. The subject in condensed form is given to girls and boys in all of the grades in Saskatchewan, and is given to girls only in Grades VI, VII and VIII in most of the city schools of British Columbia. Manual training is not very commonly offered in the upper grades of the three prairie provinces, although handwork in conjunction with art is a prescribed activity in all three provinces. Manual training classes are numerous in the city schools of British Columbia, and, as on the prairies, handwork is a prescribed activity.³

As will be indicated later,⁴ the great majority of the elementary school teachers are required to teach all of the subjects in their respective grades, while the teachers in the small one-room rural schools are of course required to teach all grades as well as all subjects. The normal schools must therefore give their students a very broad foundation in both subject matter and methodology. Not only so, but they must educate their students to see clearly the life needs of their pupils and to justify the

¹With the exception of certain municipalities in British Columbia and Manitoba, where the 6-3-3 or the 6-6 systems have been established.

²Manitoba Department of Education, School Curriculum for Grades I to VI, pp. I to VIII. Saskatchewan Department of Education, Public School Curriculum, Grades I to VIII, p. 14. Alberta Department of Education, Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools, Part I, p. 4, and Part II, p. 4. British Columbia Department of Education, Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools, pp. 3 ff.

³Manitoba Department of Education, School Curriculum for Grades I to VI, pp. I to VIII. Saskatchewan Department of Education, Public School Curriculum, Grades I to VIII, p. 14. Alberta Department of Education, Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools, Part I, p. 4, and Part II, p. 4. British Columbia Department of Education, Programme of Studies for the Elementary Schools, pp. 3 ff.

⁴See Chap. VI.

work that they do in terms of those needs. It is obvious that the normal schools are charged with a difficult duty.

Secondary Education

Each of the four provinces provides diversified facilities for high school education. Work up to and including senior matriculation (the equivalent of the first year of college) is offered in many of the larger high schools. The curriculums most frequently offered are those for university matriculation and normal entrance, but a curriculum for the general high school graduation diploma is also offered.¹ Curriculums in commerce, technical work, and household science are found in many of the larger city high schools.² The university matriculation and normal entrance curriculums of the prairie provinces are three years in length, while those of British Columbia are four years in length.

In 1906 and 1932 the percentages of the total school enrolment to be found in Grades IX to XII were as follows: British Columbia, 4 per cent and 16 per cent respectively;³ Alberta, 2 per cent and 16 per cent;⁴ Saskatchewan, 3 per cent and 15 per cent;⁵ and Manitoba, 5 per cent and 13 per cent.⁶ It will be noticed that three of the four provinces are at present very similar as regards the percentages of total school enrolment found in the high schools. The data show also that there has been a very rapid increase in the percentage of enrolment in all of the provinces since the time of their establishment.

A large share of the increase in high school enrolment is to be found in the small rural high schools and in the "superior"

¹See for example British Columbia High School Programme of Studies, 1933, p. 7.

²See the introductory pages of the four high school programmes of study.

³British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1906, p. 7, and Report, 1932, p. 111.

⁴Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1906, p. 20, and Report, 1932, p. 72.

⁵Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1906, p. 16, and Report, 1932, pp. 12, 14, and 27.

⁶Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1906, pp. 6, 56, and 132.

(rural continuation) schools.¹ Especially is this the case in Saskatchewan, a province with a relatively large percentage of rural population. Since no student-teacher aspiring to a secondary school position can be certain of obtaining a specialist position in a city high school, it follows that the university departments of education must give their students a very broad preparation indeed. It should be noted also that in the three prairie provinces there are many normal school graduates teaching in the rural continuation schools who are expected to teach some high school work, although their professional preparation has been for elementary school work only.

The usual high school subjects are English language and literature, Latin or French, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, general science, physics or chemistry, history, and hygiene and physical education.² Civics, art, music, geography, biology, agriculture, household science, manual training, and commercial work are the usual options. Which of these options is given in a school depends largely upon the size of the school and upon the ability and interest of the staff. English, social studies, arithmetic and mathematics, science, and hygiene and physical education are the subjects most often required as the constants. In some of the more progressive of the larger high schools experimental use is being made of a program of vocational guidance. The university departments of education must develop teachers who have scholarship and teaching ability in at least two of the usual high school fields, and who have sufficient versatility to prepare themselves to teach several of the other subjects in case fate should destine them to teach in an ungraded or small graded high school. Still more important, the departments must prepare teachers who possess fine character, rich culture, broad intellectual background, and the vision to teach their subjects with the life needs of adolescents in mind.

¹See for example Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1931, p. 39.

²British Columbia High School Programme, 1933, pp. 7-10. Alberta Handbook for Secondary Schools, 1930, pp. 3-6. Saskatchewan Courses of Study for Secondary Schools, 1932-33, pp. 11-17. Manitoba Programme of Studies, Grades VII to XIII, 1933, pp. 30-31.

The Establishment of the Normal Schools and the
University Departments of Education

In the previous pages various social developments have been briefly sketched and present-day conditions have been outlined. An account of the general development of teacher education in each of the four provinces will now be presented.

Manitoba

When the province of Manitoba was formed in 1870 there were in existence in the Red River Valley and its adjacent areas approximately thirty-five small schools, having a total enrolment of less than 2,500 pupils.¹ By 1899 the school enrolment had increased to over 48,000 pupils.² From 1870 until 1890 there were two certificating authorities, the Protestant Board and the Catholic Board.³ After 1890 all teachers were certificated by the one non-denominational Advisory Board of the provincial department of education.⁴

The first normal school.— At first there were no normal schools, but in 1882 a training institution was established at Winnipeg, with a staff of one instructor and an enrolment of sixteen students.⁵ From that date until 1899 the curriculums for the preparation of first-class and second-class teachers were four and one-half months in length.⁶ The normal school instructors spent their extra-sessional time in giving short one-month courses

¹W. A. McIntyre, "Sixty Years of Education in Manitoba," The Western School Journal, XXV, p. 134. Winnipeg, 1930.

Shortt and Doughty, op. cit., XX, "The Prairie Provinces," 420-427.

²Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1899, p. 5.

³Shortt and Doughty, op. cit., pp. 426-429.

⁴Ibid., p. 430.

⁵McIntyre, op. cit., p. 134.

⁶McIntyre, op. cit., p. 138.

in various localities for the training of third-class teachers.¹ These short sessions were gradually lengthened, first of all to six weeks, then in 1899 to ten weeks, and again in 1905 to thirteen weeks.² Not long after the Winnipeg normal school was founded the plan was adopted of conducting both the long sessions and the short sessions in the same building, these sessions overlapping in time.³ This overlapping added greatly to the difficulties of administration and teaching in the institution, yet the arrangement was continued until as late as 1926.

Preparation of high school teachers.— During the decade 1870-1880 Manitoba secured and certificated high school teachers in various provisional ways.⁴ In the early days many of these teachers did not possess university degrees and were extremely deficient in scholarship as well as in professional training. In the years subsequent to the establishment of the provincial university in 1877 this deficiency was gradually rectified.⁵ Shortly after the establishment of the Winnipeg normal school, university graduates seeking the high school certificates were required to take a course at that institution, a course which differed in but few respects from that taken by prospective elementary school teachers.⁶

The short third-class course.— After 1901 one of the important features of the certificate system was that no one could enter the second-class normal school course unless he had already taken the short third-class course and had taught for one year.⁷

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1886, pp. 18-26. The chief difference between the two higher classes was that the first-class teachers had received one more year of high school education than the second-class teachers. The second-class teachers differed from those of the third-class in that they had received one more year of high school education, and also a longer professional training.

²McIntyre, op. cit., p. 138.

³Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1886, p. 24; and 1899, p. 24.

⁴Shortt and Doughty, op. cit., p. 429.

⁵Ibid., pp. 443-47.

⁶Manitoba Department of Education, Regulations of the Advisory Board, 1899, pp. 10-14; also McIntyre, op. cit., p. 138.

⁷Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1901, p. 22.

The result of this regulation was that for a considerable number of years there were more third-class teachers than second-class teachers. While this arrangement was in force it was found that the second-class teachers were much more able to benefit from normal school work than third-class teachers. In his report for 1910 Dr. McIntyre expressed his intention of making the short third-class curriculum as immediately practical as possible.¹ He had attempted to incorporate several broadening and cultural elements into this curriculum, but his efforts had proven largely futile. Furthermore, the brevity of tenure of the teachers of the province at that time (estimated at an average of three years) had discouraged the staff; there was little inducement to give a broad basis of theory and culture to persons most of whom were destined to be transients. Fortunately, the number of third-class students in the normal school diminished steadily in the ensuing years, and in 1926 the authorities were able to abolish the short course.

Preparing of teachers for foreign communities.- During the pre-war decades the assimilation and Canadianization of the continually growing number of non-British immigrants became an increasingly serious problem for Manitoba. In 1909, special high school classes were instituted for the preparation of teachers for service in the foreign settlements.² A high school class for Ruthenians was opened in Brandon, and one for Poles in Winnipeg. After receiving three years of high school education, the students of these classes proceeded to one of the normal school centres for a short third-class course. In 1911 a third-class normal school course for the German group was opened at Morden, and a class at St. Boniface for the preparation of French teachers.³ These four special seminaries continued to do good service for many years in the preparation of third-class teachers for the bilingual schools. In 1906 their work was taken over by the Winnipeg normal school and by the new normal school at Brandon.

The second normal school.- In 1914 the small local third-class institute at Brandon was enlarged and transformed into a permanent normal school, and a large and well-designed building

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1910, p. 36.

²Ibid., 1909, p. 120.

³Ibid., 1911, pp. 11, 115, and 121.

was constructed for its home.¹ This was Manitoba's second normal school. For two years the work of this school was confined to the preparation of third-class teachers, but in 1916 a course was also offered for second-class teachers.² For seven years courses were given in overlapping "short sessions" and "long sessions" to the two classes of students. In 1923, however, the short third-class curriculum was dropped,³ and since then the work has been confined to the preparation of second-class teachers, with a resulting gain in the efficiency of the institution. From the very outset the curriculum of the Brandon normal school was given a rural bias, because of the fact that the great majority of its graduates were destined to teach in the small rural schools.⁴

The 1919 conference.— In 1919 a conference was held at Edmonton by the normal school principals of Western Canada, one of their objectives being to bring about some standardization of teacher education and of certification. It was agreed that the completion of Grade XI should be the prerequisite for second-class teachers,⁵ and that the normal school session should be a continuous session thirty-six weeks in length.⁶ The hope was expressed that a two-year normal school course would be established within a short time.⁷

Improvement of the preparation of high school teachers.— In 1922 an important step was taken when a special four-months course for the preparation of high school teachers was instituted at the Winnipeg normal school and a special collegiate certificate provided.⁸ University graduates had for years been prepared at

¹Ibid., 1914, p. 53.

²Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1916, p. 67.

³Ibid., 1923, p. 9. The issuance of third-class certificates by the provincial department was finally discontinued in 1926 (Report, 1926, p. 62).

⁴Ibid., 1915, pp. 45-47.

⁵Alberta Department of Education, Conference on Teacher Training, p. 5. Edmonton, 1919.

⁶Ibid., p. 3.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1922, pp. 99, 146.

that institution, but their preparation had not differed materially from that of the other students. The provision of a special course had been advocated by the deputy minister in his 1915 report, and on various occasions since then by the high school inspectors. The four-months session proved all too short, and was therefore extended in 1924,¹ and again in 1928 when it was lengthened to ten months.² This curriculum for the graduates had many elements in common with the first-class and second-class curriculums. The provision of a special curriculum was advisable in view of the recent establishment of junior high schools in Manitoba and in view of the steady increase in the number of the older types of secondary schools.

Summer school sessions.- Summer school sessions had been conducted since 1905 under the joint auspices of the provincial department of education and the provincial university, the majority of students being teachers who sought to improve their academic and professional standing.³ By 1928 the enrolment of the summer school had risen to 751, and by 1931 to 1,009. In that year the M. A. degree in education was established at the university, the curriculum including eight courses in education, most of which could be taken in the summer sessions. The prerequisites for this M. A. degree were the B. A. degree, the normal school certificate, and at least two years of successful teaching experience.⁴

Additional normal schools.- In 1926 there were 631 students enrolled at the two normal schools. To train this great number eighteen instructors were provided, eleven of them being at the Winnipeg normal school. In order to relieve the pressure somewhat the department established two small supplementary normal schools, one at Dauphin, and one at Manitou.⁵ Short institute sessions had been held in these two towns for many years. Since 1926 the two schools had been training second-class teachers. Their enrolments had been small, being fifty-six and fifty respect-

¹Ibid., 1924, p. 46.

²Ibid., 1927, p. 110, and Ibid., 1929, p. 113.

³McIntyre, op. cit., p. 143.

⁴University of Manitoba, Calendar, 1932-33, p. 33.

⁵Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1926, p. 62.

ively in 1931. The gradual increase in the number of unemployed teachers has recently induced the authorities to close both of them.¹

A university school of education.— A very significant change in the provisions for the preparation of high school teachers was made in the autumn of 1933, when a school of education was established at the University of Manitoba.² The university graduates were henceforth to be given professional preparation at the university rather than at the Winnipeg normal school, although the students were to continue to go to the latter center for methods courses in primary work, English, mathematics, Latin, and science. It will be interesting to watch the development of this new department, which is the youngest of the four university departments of Western Canada although established within the oldest of the four provincial universities.

Manitoba has now a university department of education for the preparation of secondary school teachers and two large normal schools. As will be shown later,³ her normal-school and university-department entrance requirements are higher today than they ever have been, and her curriculums for teacher education are longer. Furthermore, there are many evidences of steady improvement in the quality of the preparation given.⁴

Saskatchewan

The territory now included in the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta was until 1905 a part of the North-West Territories. These territories were organized in 1870, and a school system was established in 1884.⁵ The completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1885 marked the beginning of a period of rapid growth of population, which became accelerated after the creation of the provinces in 1905.⁶ In 1906 there were 873 schools in Saskatchewan

¹p. 51.

²Manitoba Department of Education, Report, 1933, p. 11; also letter of Mr. D.S. Woods, Director of School of Education, May 5, 1934.

³See Chapter III.

⁴See Chapters II and IV, Sections on "Manitoba."

⁵Shortt and Doughty, op.cit., pp. 451-54; also Saskatoon Normal School, Light, April, 1922, p. 7.

⁶Shortt and Doughty, op.cit., p. 457.

alone, 823 of these being one-room schools.¹ The extent of the growth of population since 1905 is indicated by the fact that in 1932 there were 4,995 school districts in the province.² As has been stated, Saskatchewan is primarily an agricultural province, and the majority of her pupils are enrolled in small rural, village, and small-town schools.

Early provisions for teacher education.- A beginning in the work of teacher education was made in 1889, when the principal of the Moosomin Union School began giving lectures on the science of teaching to a number of his advanced students.³ In 1890 the provincial education authorities decided to establish two normal departments, one at the Regina Union School and one at the Moosomin School.⁴ These departments were to be conducted by the inspectors of the two districts, and courses were to be given whenever ten or more persons presented themselves for training. No candidates appeared at Regina, and only six at Moosomin; consequently the plan was abandoned.

The first normal school.- The first normal school of Saskatchewan was established in 1893, at Regina.⁵ The enrolment for the first year was sixty-two. The fact that over 1,500 teachers were trained in the three normal schools of Saskatchewan in 1929 indicates the rapidity of the expansion that had taken place in the intervening years. For several years after 1893 two four-months sessions were held annually in the Regina normal school for the preparation of first-class and second-class teachers.⁶ In addition two two-months sessions were held annually for those seeking third-class certificates.⁷ After 1900 the normal school could not begin to supply the number of teachers needed and so

¹Saskatchewan Department of Education, Annual Report, 1906, p. 15.

²Ibid., 1932, p. 12.

³Shortt and Doughty, op. cit., p. 464.

⁴Saskatoon Normal School, op. cit., p. 7.

⁵Shortt and Doughty, op. cit., p. 464.

⁶Ibid.; also Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1906, p. 11.

⁷As in Manitoba, the chief difference between the certificates was an academic one; see footnote, p. 23.

for many years the provincial education department issued provincial certificates or "permits," good for from two to ten months and valid only in the localities specified.¹

The preparation of high school teachers.- Special secondary school certificates were first granted in 1908.² Those who sought the above certificates received their preparation in the Regina normal school, along with intending elementary school teachers. This arrangement was to continue until the establishment of the university department of education in 1927.

The demand for teachers of high school subjects increased steadily in Saskatchewan. In 1908 there were in the province two collegiate institutes and six high schools, and in addition twenty-five elementary schools doing continuation work.³ The enrolment in the latter year in the three secondary school "forms" was 843. In 1932 there were 12 collegiate institutes, 7 high schools, 447 continuation schools, and 3,093 elementary schools giving secondary education of some sort, with a total enrolment for the four types of institutions of 33,936 high school students.⁴ The percentage of the total school enrolment found in high school classes had risen in twenty-four years from two per cent⁵ to approximately fifteen per cent.⁶

Temporary training centers, and a second normal school.- The steady increase in the demand for elementary school teachers induced the provincial department to establish in 1908 two temporary training centers, one at Moose Jaw and one at Prince Albert, to supplement the work of the Regina normal school.⁷ The arrangement of temporary supplementary training centers was followed sporadically for several years, even after the establishment of the Saskatoon normal school in 1912. One of the chief aims of the department in establishing these temporary centers was to reduce the number of untrained "permit" teachers, of whom there were

¹Shortt and Doughty, op. cit., pp. 462-63.

²Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1908, p. 24. These certificates were granted only to university graduates.

³Ibid., 1908, p. 27.

⁴Ibid., 1932, pp. 26-27.

⁵Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1908, p. 18.

⁶Ibid., 1932, pp. 14, 27.

⁷Ibid., 1908, p. 34.

468 in 1915 and 842 in 1917.¹ In 1915, short two-months classes for third-class teachers were held in nine centers.² In 1921 there were eight centers at which short training courses were given.³ The plan was discontinued in 1927, when the third normal school of the province was established at Moose Jaw. By that time the number of teachers with professional preparation had become so large that it was also possible to stop the issuance of permits to untrained teachers.

Teachers from outside the province.- For many years the department was forced to depend upon outside sources for teachers for the schools. In 1912, sixty-six per cent of those who were certificated had received their academic training outside of Saskatchewan.⁴ Fortunately by 1915 the percentage had fallen to thirty-six.⁵ By 1924 the local supply of teachers had become large enough to warrant the cessation of the practice of giving third-class certificates to outside recruits.⁶ By 1920 the supply of normal school matriculants trained in Saskatchewan had become so great that serious consideration was given to the proposal to refuse certificates to students trained outside of the province.⁷

Summer school sessions.- The summer school was established at the provincial university in 1914, to be administered co-jointly by the university authorities and the provincial department of education.⁸ Several courses in education were offered, but for a time these were so poorly attended that many of them were discontinued. Only the courses in "Education" and "Primary Methods" were continued, the former being required of those second-class students who were preparing for the first-class certificate.⁹ In 1930 this latter requirement was abrogated. Fortunately, during the past few years the program and enrolment of the summer school

¹Ibid., 1917, p. 28.

²Ibid., 1915, p. 10.

³Ibid., 1921, p. 14

⁴Ibid., 1912, p. 16.

⁵Ibid., 1915, p. 22.

⁶Ibid., 1924, p. 69.

⁷Ibid., 1930, p. 70.

⁸University of Saskatchewan, Calendar, 1931-32, p. 185.

⁹This requirement was additional to that calling for completion of another year of high school work.

have been expanded considerably.¹

Developments at the Regina and Saskatoon normal schools.-

In 1921 the department ordered the establishment at the two normal schools of short two-months curriculums, to be provided in addition to the long curriculums.² The principals protested vigorously when this step was taken, pointing out that it would greatly complicate their administration arrangements. Fortunately, in 1922 they were relieved of the responsibility of conducting the short sessions,³ although these were continued at the various small centers until 1927.⁴

The curriculums of the two normal schools developed and expanded continuously along with the steady enlargement of the two staffs. The Regina staff increased from four in 1906⁵ to eleven in 1922.⁶ The Saskatoon staff increased from four in 1912⁷ to nine in 1922.⁸ For many years the regular staff members were aided by government inspectors, who gave aid in the supervision of practice teaching and in helping students by means of individual conferences. This plan of having inspectors participate in the work of the normal schools was a make-shift, and was recognized as such by the department. In course of time the practice was discontinued.

Both normal schools were established in good buildings. Unfortunately, these buildings were over-taxed by huge enrolments, there being 1,638 students enrolled in 1922⁹ in the two institutions, and 1,702 students in 1925.¹⁰

Establishment of a third normal school.- In 1927 a third normal school was opened at Moose Jaw, in the southwest section of the province.¹¹ There was an enrolment of 304 for the very

¹University of Saskatchewan, Calendar, 1932-33, pp. 188-9; also Summer School Announcement, 1932, pp. 7-14.

²Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1921, p. 61.

³Ibid., 1922, pp. 67-68.

⁴Ibid., 1927, p. 86.

⁵Ibid., 1906, p. 5.

⁶Ibid., 1922, p. 3.

⁷Ibid., 1912, p. 5.

⁸Ibid., 1922, p. 3.

⁹Ibid., 1933, pp. 67-70.

¹⁰Ibid., 1925, pp. 72-73.

¹¹Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1927, p. 4.

first year, in spite of the fact that the normal school was occupying temporary quarters. The new building was opened in 1929, with a staff of fourteen instructors.¹ In spite of the construction of this normal school the two older schools continued to be overcrowded. The opening of a fourth normal school was therefore advocated in 1928 by the deputy minister.² An alternative policy was suggested by others, namely, that of setting a numerical limit to the enrolment of the normal schools. Because of the rapid increase in the number of unemployed teachers, the latter policy was the one ultimately adopted.³

The university school of education.— Ever since the creation of the province in 1905 the high school teachers had received their professional preparation in the normal schools, being granted "interim" temporary certificates which on the successful completion of a two-year period of probation were converted into permanent high school certificates.⁴ When in 1919 the normal school term was lengthened from four months to eight months an exception was made for the group of university graduates, their period of preparation being set at eighteen weeks.⁵ Vigorous protest against this ruling was made by the two normal school principals, but no change was made at the time. In 1927 a college of education was established at the university, and an eight-months course for university graduates was inaugurated.⁶ In the following year the graduate degree of M. Ed. was established,⁷ and in 1930 the degree of B. Ed.⁸ In 1931 the staff of the college of education consisted of three full-time members and thirteen part-time members, while the enrolment was forty-one.⁹ The establishment of the university college of education marked the beginning of a new and important stage in the evolution of teacher education in Saskatchewan.

¹Ibid., 1929, p. 98.

²Ibid., 1928, p. 20.

³Ibid., 1930, p. 78.

⁴These were granted only to university graduates.

⁵Saskatchewan Department of Education, Report, 1920, p. 57.

⁶University of Saskatchewan, Calendar, 1927, pp. 55-56, and ibid., 1928, pp. 155-160.

⁷Ibid., 1928, p. 156.

⁸Ibid., 1930, p. 160.

⁹Ibid., 1931, pp. XV and 238.

Alberta

Early certificate arrangements.- The province of Alberta was created in the year 1905. Previous to that year teachers had been certificated from Regina by the department of education of the North-West Territories.¹ Henceforward all teachers were certificated by the provincial department of education. Provision was made for four classes of teachers: first-class - those who had completed the work of Standard VIII prior to normal entrance; second-class - those who had completed the work of Standard VII; third-class - persons allowed to teach for only one year because of the unsatisfactory nature of their normal school work; and "permit" teachers - no definite requirements, and teaching privileges limited to certain specified communities.² At first there were no special high school teaching certificates, those university graduates who attended the normal school being given first-class certificates. Students who completed the normal school course in a satisfactory manner were given temporary ("interim") certificates. These were converted to permanent certificates after one year of successful teaching and the completion of a professional reading course.³ In 1907 there were in the province 214 first class teachers, 830 second class teachers, 4 third-class teachers, and 162 teachers with permits.⁴

The first normal school.- The first normal school was established in Calgary in the spring of 1906, with a staff of two members. The sessions were four months in length.⁵ For the autumn session of 1906 the staff was enlarged to four members. By 1910 the staff of the school had expanded to seven members.⁶

In 1910 a short orientation course of one month was instituted for the benefit of those teachers who had come to Alberta from Great Britain and the United States.⁷ This course was re-

¹Shortt and Doughty, op. cit., pp. 480-81.

²Alberta Department of Education, Annual Report, 1906, pp. 16-18 and 97-98.

³Ibid., p. 97.

⁴Ibid., 1907, p. 22.

⁵Ibid., 1906, pp. 36-39.

⁶Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1910, p. 7.

⁷Ibid., 1910, p. 44.

peated annually until 1916.

The population of Alberta grew rapidly in the pre-war decades, and consequently the demand for qualified teachers became much greater than the supply. New school districts were continually being created. The brevity of tenure of the majority of the teachers was another of the factors accounting for the great demand. In 1912 the Calgary normal school prepared 82 first-class teachers (including 23 university graduates) and 178 second-class teachers.¹ In the same year 453 teachers flocked to Alberta from other parts, and most of the newcomers were given certificates by the government.

The second normal school.- In order to develop a greater supply of home-prepared teachers the government established a second normal school at Camrose.² This normal school was located in its permanent home in 1913. As at Calgary, the sessions at Camrose were four months in length, and both first-class and second-class teachers were prepared. Arrangements were made with the Camrose school board for the use of an elementary school for observation and practice teaching. The new normal school building had been designed to facilitate the offering of a wide curriculum. It included a library, two manual training rooms, special rooms for household science, an assembly room, and special rooms for the primary department.

Summer school sessions.- In 1913 a summer school for teachers was instituted at the university in Edmonton.³ This summer school became an annual affair, and its program expanded steadily, coming to include courses on methods in the school subjects, academic courses in the various subjects of the freshman and sophomore years, and general courses in education. The enrolment has grown steadily. Thousands of teachers have made use of the opportunities offered, and have secured higher teaching certificates, credits towards a degree, or specialized training of some kind.⁴

¹ Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1912, p. 39.

² Ibid., 1913, pp. 42-43.

³ Ibid., 1913, p. 19.

⁴ As in the other provinces, additional certificates indicating specialization in certain fields have been established, the certificate courses being open only to those who have obtained one of the general certificates (Alberta Department of Education, Joint Summer Session, 1934, pp. 13-14).

The 1919 conference.- In the summer of 1919 a conference was held at Edmonton by the principals of the normal schools of Western Canada. The main features of the agenda have already been reported. This conference gave impetus to many reform movements which were already in evidence in the various provinces, and proved a source of considerable inspiration to its participants.

The third normal school.- To meet the ever-increasing demand for teachers a third normal school was opened in Edmonton in 1920,¹ in temporary quarters. To this institution most of the university graduates were sent (approximately twenty in number), and also those normal school matriculants living in the northern part of the province. The school was closed in 1923,² but in 1928 it was reopened in temporary quarters, and in the following year it was moved into a splendid new building, which contained gymnasiums, laboratories, a library, an auditorium, a special art room, two double demonstration-observation rooms, and eight classrooms for elementary school classes.³ Such a building was most admirably adapted to the needs of an approved teacher-training curriculum.

The preparation of high school teachers.- From 1905 until 1921 the high school classes of Alberta had been taught by teachers trained in the normal schools in the four-months sessions and holding first-class or second-class certificates. In 1921 a separate high school certificate was established.⁴ In 1925 a small class of graduates was formed in the Calgary normal school, and the curriculum for these graduates was lengthened from four months to five months.⁵ Hitherto the university graduates in attendance at the normal schools had not been prepared as a distinct group.

As the years went by a steady increase in the demand for teachers of high school subjects became evident. This was shown by the fact that the percentage of the total school enrolment

¹Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1920, p. 38.

²Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1923, p. 11.

³Ibid., 1928, p. 10, and ibid., 1929, p. 30.

⁴Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1921, p. 46. This certificate was granted only to university graduates.

⁵Alberta Department of Education, Report, 1925, p. 44.

found in the high schools increased from 2.4 per cent in 1906¹ to 16 per cent in 1932.² By 1929 a big increase was apparent in the number of teachers engaged exclusively in high school work.³ The time was ripe for the establishment of a special center for the preparation of secondary school teachers, and this was done in the autumn of 1929, when a course for teacher education was formed at the University of Alberta.⁴ In 1930 the School of Education was formed as an organization within the university.⁵ Prerequisite courses were specified for the undergraduate years, and a full session of professional preparation was instituted, which coincided with the university session. A graduate course in education leading to the B. Ed. degree was also outlined. The staff in 1930-31 consisted of two professors of education and ten special-methods "demonstrators," the latter being members of the staff of the high schools of Edmonton.⁶ Several of the professors of the academic departments of the university also contributed their services. The enrolment of the class was only twelve in 1929-30, but by 1932 it had risen to thirty-four.⁷

Closing and subsequent re-opening of the Edmonton normal school.- In 1933 the government closed the Edmonton normal school, partly because of financial stress and partly because of the growing over-supply of teachers.⁸ For three decades Alberta had witnessed an almost continuous struggle on the part of her education department to secure an adequate number of qualified teachers. Now, at least for a time, the supply of certificated teachers was more than sufficient. In 1935 the Edmonton school was re-opened, in spite of the fact that there was a considerable surplus of certificated teachers in the province.⁹

¹Ibid., 1906, p. 20.

²Ibid., 1932, p. 72.

³Ibid., 1929, p. 14

⁴Ibid., p. 16.

⁵University of Alberta, Calendar, 1930, p. 89.

⁶Ibid., pp. 11, 89-90.

⁷Letter to Dr. Lazerte, Head of University of Alberta School of Education, January 31, 1933.

⁸Letter to I. V. Hall, Manager, School Grants Branch, Alberta Department of Education, March 20, 1934.

⁹Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Annual Survey of Education, 1934, p. XXVI. Ottawa, 1935.

British Columbia

Lack of qualified teachers during the pioneer years.-

The colony of British Columbia became a province of Canada in 1871. At that time there were approximately one thousand pupils in the schools, although there were twice that number who were of school age.¹ The education act passed by the legislature in 1872 gave the power of licensing teachers to the provincial superintendent of education.² In 1874 only 8 of the 36 teachers holding certificates had had any professional preparation.³ Many of these certificated teachers had been drawn from Eastern Canada, a few from Great Britain, and a few from the United States. Superintendent Jessop recognized early the desirability of having a larger proportion of home-prepared teachers. In his report for 1874 he advocated the establishment of two or three high schools, one of his reasons being that such institutions "would do good service as training schools for teachers, until . . . the establishment of a provincial normal school."⁴

Beginning in 1873, examinations were held annually by the provincial department for the certification of teachers.⁵ First-class, second-class, and third-class certificates were given, the grade of certificate granted depending solely upon the standing of the candidates in the examinations. The scarcity of teachers was so great that in 1875 Mr. Jessop had to advertise in a Toronto paper for recruits.⁶ However, after the establishment of the Victoria high school in that same year the number of candidates for the certificate-qualifying examinations increased, and the ratio of supply to demand gradually changed.⁷

In 1878, 6 of the 58 teachers of British Columbia had received their entire education in the public schools of the province.⁸ Fifty years later the majority of the 3,668 teachers em-

¹A. Begg, History of British Columbia, pp. 464-476.

²Shortt, Doughty and Others, op. cit., XXII, "The Pacific Provinces," pp. 401-444.

³British Columbia Department of Education, Annual Report, 1874, p. 12.

⁴British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1874, p. 9.

⁵Ibid., 1874, p. 36.

⁶Ibid., 1875, p. 13.

⁷Ibid., p. 18.

⁸Ibid., 1878, p. 180.

ployed had received all or practically all of their academic and professional training within the province.¹

During these pioneer years, on account of the dearth of certified teachers, the practice was begun of issuing a few temporary certificates annually. These temporary certificates were valid for one year only, and the teachers received no definite assurance that they would be renewed.

Short institutes.- A significant development took place in 1885, when the first of a series of short institutes was held.² Such institutes were held for many years subsequently. They were the forerunners of the local and provincial conventions of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation and of the summer school sessions of the provincial department and the university, provisions which are today very important for the in-service education of the teachers of the province.

Establishment of high schools.- After the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1885 the population of the province grew rapidly. The city of Vancouver came into being in that year, a small municipality destined to develop within 46 years into a city of 245,000 people. The rapid increase in the school population of the province resulted in a corresponding increase in the demand for teachers, which was one of the chief reasons for the establishment of high schools in Vancouver, New Westminster, and Nanaimo. For many years these three high schools and the Victoria high school has as one of their functions the work of teacher education, insofar as the academic part of such work was concerned. In 1895 a small amount of professional preparation was made available at the Victoria high school, in addition to the academic preparation. In that year a special normal class was established for the preparation of those students who were planning to write on the certificate examinations.³

Early certificate arrangements.- In 1887 the teaching privileges attached to the various certificates were as follows: Temporary certificate, varying periods; IIB, one year; IIIA, two years; II B, three years; II A, five years; I B (elementary school, and high school assistant), life; I A (any position in

¹Ibid., 1928, p. VI8

²Ibid., 1885, pp. 341-44.

³British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1895, p.230.

elementary or high school), life.¹ The exemption from examinations hitherto granted to British university graduates was abrogated; henceforth the latter candidates had to take a professional examination in pedagogy and in school law, along with Canadian and other graduates. During these early years most of the graduates who applied for I A certificates were graduates of Canadian universities.² In 1889 six of the eight graduates who applied were Canadian. In 1890 four of the five graduates were Canadian. All of the eight graduates applying in 1897 and all of the fourteen applying in 1898 were graduates of Canadian universities. Most of those who were not Canadian came from the universities of Great Britain.

The monitor and pupil-teacher schemes.- In 1890 the shortage of teachers and the lack of money induced many local authorities to appoint "monitors" as teachers' helpers.³ In 1892, 19 of the 228 teachers of British Columbia were monitors. This scheme proved to be short-lived, as did also the English pupil-teacher scheme which was tried in Victoria during the few years subsequent to 1895.⁴

The first normal school.- The establishment of a normal school had been suggested as early as 1874 by Superintendent Jessop,⁵ and recurrently from that time onwards by various superintendents and inspectors. During the decade 1890-1900 Superintendent Pope and Inspector Burns were especially persistent in their advocacy of a normal school.⁶ The system of providing high school courses and teachers' examinations as means of teacher education had served for many years, but was now recognized as being but a make-shift arrangement. The long-awaited step was taken by the government in 1901, when a normal school was established in Vancouver.⁷ In the first year there was a staff of three instruc-

¹Ibid., 1887, p. c 1. Until the establishment of the Vancouver normal school in 1901 no specified period of attendance at a professional course for teacher education was required of those who sought certificates.

²Ibid., reports from 1887 onwards.

³Ibid., 1889, p. 195.

⁴Ibid., 1895, p. 224.

⁵Ibid., 1874, pp. 9, 12.

⁶Ibid., reports from 1890 onwards.

⁷British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1901, p. 277.

tors and an enrolment of thirty-four students. The classes were held in one of the city schools. Subsequently two sessions were held each year, the autumn preliminary session and the spring session, the latter being the longer of the two. The work of the advanced session was somewhat more difficult than that of the preliminary session, and it included certain additional subjects.¹ In addition to these two sessions, a session of eleven weeks was held each summer from 1902 until 1905 for the preparation of third-class teachers.² University graduates were not required to attend normal school; they were awarded the academic certificate if they passed a government examination in pedagogy and school law. In addition to the above provisions the old system of teachers' qualifying examinations was continued, and for several years a large number of persons who had come from without the province and who had not taken the course at the Vancouver normal school qualified in this way.

The permanent home for the Vancouver normal school was completed in 1909.³ This building proved satisfactory for the time, but in the years subsequent to 1915,⁴ when the average of the yearly enrolments exceeded 250 students, the staff and students found themselves badly cramped for space. The library room was found to be much too small, and the art room proved ill-suited for its purpose. The lack of a science laboratory and of rooms for household science was keenly felt, especially after the normal school year was lengthened and opportunity thereby made for curriculum expansion.

Increase of high school enrolment.— During the decade 1900-1910 the secondary school enrolment increased rapidly. A great impetus to the establishment of high schools came in 1901,⁵ when the government voted a special grant for the encouragement of secondary education. This policy was continued by the succeeding governments. The high school enrolment of the province in-

¹P. 89.

²As in the other provinces, one less year of high school work was required of the third-class students than of the second-class students.

³British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1909, p. 35.

⁴Ibid., 1915, p. A. 53.

⁵Ibid., 1901, p. 235.

creased from 584 in 1901¹ to 19,371 in 1932,² (Grades IX to XII), while the percentage of the total school enrolment registered in high school classes increased from 2.5 in 1901 to 16.7 in 1932. This growth in percentage of enrolment was to affect teacher education in two respects: to make possible a better supply of normal school matriculants, and to increase the demand for high school teachers.

The second normal school.- In 1915 the Victoria normal school was established.³ The building was better than the Vancouver normal school building, possessing as it did chemistry, physics, and biology laboratories, an art room, a set of rooms for household science, another set of rooms for manual training, and two rooms for a semi-graded model school. In addition a large space for school gardens and playgrounds was provided. A neighboring school was set aside for purposes of observation and practice teaching, supplementing the two-room model school housed within the normal school. In 1916 two additional public schools were secured for observation and practice work.

In 1915 the provincial department instituted the scheme of having the "preliminary" curriculum and the "advanced" curriculum offered concurrently each term in both of the normal schools.⁴ This proved to be a poor arrangement, for it added greatly to the work of the two staffs and detracted much from their efficiency. Fortunately in 1921 the arrangement was discontinued.⁵

The 1919 Conference.- The normal school principals, Mr. Burns and Mr. MacLaurin, were British Columbia's delegates to the interprovincial normal school conference held in Edmonton in 1919.⁶ Two of the important recommendations of this conference were carried into effect in British Columbia in 1922 and 1923 when the normal school year was lengthened and the normal entrance prerequisites raised.

Preparation of high school teachers.- In 1920 a regulation was passed requiring university graduates who were candidates for

¹British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1901, p. 234.

²Ibid., 1932, p. 9.

³Ibid., 1915, p. 54.

⁴Ibid., p. 53.

⁵Ibid., 1921, p. 11.

⁶Alberta Department of Education, Report of Conference on Teacher Training (Edmonton, 1919).

the academic certificate to attend one of the normal schools for a short-four-months session.¹ Up to that year the only requirement for such candidates was that they had to pass a single departmental examination in "Education." The regulation of 1920 remained in effect until 1923, in which year the graduates were required to attend two fifteen-weeks sessions of professional study, the autumn session in one of the normal schools and the spring session at the university.² In 1925 this regulation was again changed.³ Since that date the graduates have received all of their professional preparation at the university.

Summer school sessions.— A summer school for teachers was instituted at Victoria in 1914.⁴ Advanced courses in the elementary school subjects were given. Art, music, primary work, folk dancing, supervised play, and manual training were especially featured. In 1920 a university summer school was established to supplement the work of the Victoria summer school.⁵ Courses in first year university work were given, and also professional courses in education. Courses in second-year university work were offered in 1922, third-year courses in 1926, and fourth-year courses shortly afterwards. In addition special certificate courses for teachers of commerce and manual training were instituted.⁶ In 1931 the provincial department instituted a certificate program in physical education, which was given at Victoria in the summer session and also in Vancouver on Saturday mornings throughout the school year. In 1932 special certificate programs in manual training, technical work, commercial work, physical education, and music were begun.⁷

Establishment of the university department of education.— For many years the normal school principals and high school inspectors had advocated the establishment of a special program for the preparation of high school teachers. Attendance of prospective

¹British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1920, pp. 20, 47. Since 1887 the only requirement laid down for the university graduates who sought the high school teaching ("academic") certificate was that they had to pass an examination in pedagogy and school law.

²Ibid., 1923, p. 12.

³Ibid., 1925, p. 49.

⁴Ibid., 1915, p. 56.

⁵Ibid., 1921, p. 68.

⁶Ibid., 1926, pp. 61, 62.

⁷Ibid., 1932-33, p. 47.

high school teachers at the normal schools was considered by several of the leaders to be but a makeshift arrangement. Action was taken in 1924, when a department of education was established at the university.¹ This department consisted of one full-time professor of education and several part-time instructors (nine university professors, two normal school instructors, and five Vancouver supervisors and teachers). The session of the School of Education was seven months in length and was coterminous with the university session. The establishment of the university department of education was a most important event in the evolution of high school teacher education in British Columbia, an evolution which began in 1887 with the meagre provision that all university graduates proposing to teach should take a government examination in "Education."²

The British Columbia school survey.- The year 1925 saw the publication of the report of the British Columbia school survey, a survey most thorough and comprehensive in its nature.³ The following recommendations were among those which pertained to teacher education:

1. No additional normal school should be built.
2. Grade XII standing should be the academic prerequisite for normal entrance.
3. The normal school term should be extended to forty weeks.
4. Observation and practice teaching should be carried on in any school deemed suitable, and the use of the Vancouver model school should be discontinued.
5. Every student should have a minimum of fifty hours of observation and fifty hours of practice teaching.
6. There should be more practice teaching of a sequential kind, and less teaching of isolated lessons.
7. A well-trained librarian should be appointed to each normal school.
8. Greater attention should be paid to educational psychology.
9. In the course in history of education, more attention should be given to developments since 1800.

¹Ibid., 1925, pp. 49-50.

²P. 39.

³J.H. Putman and G.M. Weir, Survey of the School System of British Columbia, pp. 196-234. Victoria: Provincial Department of Education, 1925.

10. The work of reviewing the elementary school subjects should be reduced to a minimum.
11. A special instructor for methods and curriculum in science should be appointed to each normal school.
12. Courses in household science should be provided in both normal schools (Such a provision had been made at the Victoria normal school since its establishment).
13. The methods course in physical training should be humanized, and made less formal.
14. Normal school graduates should be given only temporary two-year certificates until such time as they have proved their teaching ability.
15. A combined elementary and high school should be built near the university, to serve as a demonstration and practice school.
16. The university diplomas in education should have endorsed upon them the subjects of specialization of their holders.

Several of these recommendations (numbers 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 16) have been largely or wholly brought into effect since 1925. The past seven years have therefore been years of marked progress for teacher education in British Columbia.

Teachers for the new junior high schools.— The first junior high schools in British Columbia were established in Point Grey and Penticton in 1926.¹ In 1927 two junior high schools were established in Vancouver.² By 1932 there were nine regular junior high schools.³ The appearance of this new type of secondary school has imposed new demands upon the normal schools and the university. From 1928 until 1934 certain selected students of the Vancouver normal school were given the privilege of observing and teaching in one of the city junior high schools.⁴ The necessity for such experience on the part of normal school students became less imperative after 1931, for in that year the provincial department ruled that all junior high school teachers must henceforth be university graduates.

¹British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1926, p. 10.

²Ibid., 1927, p. 12.

³Ibid., 1932, pp. 15 ff.

⁴Ibid., 1928, p. 46.

Teachers for household science, industrial arts, and commerce.- For years the problem of securing qualified teachers in household science, industrial arts, and commercial work has been a matter of serious concern to the educational authorities of the province. The need for professional preparation for specialists in these fields has been partially met by the establishment of summer classes, evening classes, Saturday morning classes, and correspondence courses at Victoria and Vancouver.¹ The first classes were held in 1914,² and have been continued ever since, being now conducted under the supervision of the provincial organizer of technical education, the provincial director of home economics, and one of the Vancouver high school principals. No effort has as yet been made to bring the preparation of these groups of specialists under the auspices of the university or the normal schools, although the students at the normal schools receive a non-specialized preparation in household science from the instructors recently appointed for that work.

The foregoing historical sketch relates the story of the rapid evolution of British Columbia's program of teacher education, an evolution which is worthy of comparison with the equally rapid development of elementary, secondary, and university education in the province, and which on the whole has progressed in accord with that development.

Some Interprovincial Comparisons

It may be of value at this point to consider significant similarities and differences in the historical developments of the four provinces. Each of the four programs of teacher education has developed in its own way; and yet there are certain changes which have occurred more or less simultaneously in two, three, or all four of the provinces. Some of these similarities and differences may be indicated as follows:³

¹British Columbia Department of Education, Summer School for Teachers, 1933.

²British Columbia Department of Education, Report, 1916.
p. 56.

³See Table I.

1. Practically from the time of their establishment the provincial governments insisted upon having the sole power of teacher certification.¹ The pioneer leaders had heard about the evil consequences of local certification as revealed in reports from other countries.
2. In Manitoba and Alberta, normal schools were established shortly after the creation of the provinces. In the case of Saskatchewan a pioneer normal school was inherited from the North-West Territories. British Columbia was the most dilatory in establishing a center for teacher education, not taking the step until almost three decades had elapsed.
3. In all four provinces the regular normal school sessions were at first only four or five months in length. The rapidity of the growth of population in the pre-war decades necessitated the speedy preparation of teachers, and therefore the time required was reduced to a minimum.
4. In Alberta and British Columbia model schools were established very shortly after the founding of the normal schools. In Manitoba this development occurred after a greater lapse of time. In Saskatchewan such schools were never established. The reasons for such provincial differences are difficult to explain. One of the possible reasons is that in the smaller cities of Saskatchewan the use of the regular city schools appeared to be the more feasible arrangement.
5. For several years each province made use of short training institutes or short preliminary normal school sessions as supplementary devices, in order to secure an adequate number of teachers. In each province the "short session" or "third-class" teachers were given narrowly limited teaching privileges. Use was also made, especially on the prairies and after 1900, of the plan of issuing limited "permits" to teachers possessing preparation below the minimum required for regular teachers. When the supply of better-prepared teachers became more adequate the issuance of permits was discontinued, and later on in the early post-war years the issuance of third-class certificates was also discontinued. Evidently the conditions affecting supply and demand (e.g. better salaries and better treatment from school boards) were operative in all four provinces simultaneously.
6. A gradual movement towards the lengthening of the pre-normal period of preparation took place. A common level was finally attained by all four provinces during the years 1924-26, when the unconditioned completion of Grade XI was made the normal entrance prerequisite. This reform was hastened because of the urgent recommendations of the normal school principals at the inter-provincial conference in 1919. In subsequent years two of the provinces raised the normal entrance requirement

¹Manitoba's dual-board control was abolished in 1890.

to Grade XII.

7. In each of the provinces the policy was adopted of building a second normal school (and later on in Alberta and Saskatchewan a third normal school as well) instead of continuing to rely upon the supplementary work of small institutes or short preliminary sessions. Evidently the inadequacies of these latter provisions had become commonly recognized. It is interesting to note that in each province the second normal school was established during the period 1911-1915.
8. In all the provinces the first major extension of the normal school session amounted practically to a doubling of the length of the session. This took place about the same time in three of the provinces, in Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1919 and in British Columbia in 1922. Manitoba's chief extension was made in 1926. In this respect also the influence of the recommendations of the 1919 conference upon the provincial governments can be discerned.
9. Another recommendation of the 1919 conference, the outcome of several years of discussion in each province, was that all normal school students should have one or two weeks of rural school experience. This recommendation was acted upon at about the same time in all four provinces: British Columbia, 1927; Alberta, 1928; Saskatchewan, 1929; and Manitoba, 1930.
10. The onset of the depression made the work of teaching appear more attractive financially. Teachers held on to their positions, and students continued to apply for entrance to the normal schools in spite of the imposition of higher fees. In 1931, the normal school enrolment was limited numerically by the provincial departments of British Columbia and Saskatchewan. Two years later both Manitoba and Alberta closed one of their normal schools, thus effecting a still further limitation of the supply of teachers.
11. The four university departments of education were established in fairly rapid succession: British Columbia, 1924; Saskatchewan, 1927; Alberta, 1929; and Manitoba, 1933. In each province the preparation of teachers for the secondary schools had been conducted for several years in the normal schools. This was eventually recognized as merely a makeshift arrangement. Possibly the action taken by British Columbia and Saskatchewan had something to do with the hastening of the reform in Alberta and Manitoba.

CHAPTER VII
MAJOR PROBLEMS IN TEACHER EDUCATION
IN WESTERN CANADA

In Chapters I to VI the various phases of teacher education in Western Canada were described, and certain preliminary analyses and comparisons made. Study of those chapters indicates the existence of numerous problems relating to the curriculums for teacher education. In this chapter a careful analysis will be made of the data, in order that the major problems may be clearly identified. Significant facts and conclusions will be presented under the following headings:

1. The Institutions for Teacher Education Needed in Each Province.
2. The Essential Features of a Program of Teacher Education.
3. Adequacy of the General Academic Education of Normal School and University Student-Teachers.
4. The Professional Courses of a General Nature.
5. The Special-Methods Courses.
6. Observation and Practice Teaching.
7. Extra-Curricular Activities.
8. Integration of Curriculum Elements.
9. Agencies for Research and Reform.

The Institutions for Teacher Education
Needed in Each Province

In three of the four western provinces of Canada normal schools were established at a comparatively early date.¹ These normal schools were unable to cope with the rapidly increasing demand for teachers, and therefore resort was made to recruiting

¹Pp. 22 ff.

from outside sources and to the certificating of poorly qualified applicants.¹ Within a few years additional normal schools were built.² Still later, in response to the demand for adequately-prepared high school teachers, the university departments of education were created, the four provinces taking this step in rapid succession.³ From c. 1925 onwards the ratio of supply to demand rapidly increased, especially for elementary school teachers.⁴ In consequence the Edmonton, Manitou, and Dauphin normal schools were closed, and enrolment limitations were adopted for most of the remaining normal schools.⁵ The changed relationship between supply and demand has continued to the present time. This factor, and the advent of university graduate departments of education giving preparation to both elementary and high school teachers, raises the important and pressing issue as to which of the remaining institutions are necessary. The answer cannot be given categorically, but some light can be found by studying the available data.

The issue does not relate solely to the number of institutions; it relates also to the types. The data presented in Chapter VI indicate that in each of the western provinces there is serious overlapping between the field of service of the normal schools and that of the university departments of education.⁶ This is true in spite of the fact that the normal school curriculums are designed solely for the preparation of elementary school teachers,⁷ and the university curriculums primarily for the preparation of high school teachers.⁸ Many normal-prepared teachers are doing high school work, and many university-prepared teachers are doing elementary school work.

The fact that their fields of service overlap raises the problem as to the future relationships between the normal schools and the universities. This problem is brought sharply to the fore by the action taken by Alberta in limiting the privileges of its higher certificate.⁹ One possibility is that the fields of service of the two types of institutions might be made entirely distinct. Another possibility is that the provincial

¹Pp. 22, 27, 33, 37.

²Table I.

³Pp. 53, 173.

⁴Pp. 32, 36, 53.

⁵Ibid., also Table I

⁶Pp. 240 ff.

⁷Pp. 118 ff.

⁸Pp. 206 ff.

⁹P. 253.

universities might prepare not only the high school teachers but also many or all of the elementary school teachers. In the latter eventuality the duplication of services would be either eliminated or greatly reduced. If the normal schools are retained in some form or other, there will remain the problem of effecting a closer coordination between the two types of institutions.

It should be noticed that such groups of leaders as the Committee of the National Society make no distinction between elementary and secondary school teachers with respect to maturity, character, general intellectual background, or culture.¹ This may be interpreted as an argument in favor of preparing both groups together. Another argument is that the intermingling of prospective elementary and high school teachers in the same institution might aid in breaking down the undemocratic class barriers which at present partially separate the two groups and in fostering the spirit of professional cooperation. Furthermore, the study of common problems of curriculum, methodology, and school management might serve to develop in the minds of the student-teachers a clear recognition of the essential continuity of elementary and secondary education.

There seems to be considerable opposition in Western Canada to the suggestion that the normal schools might eventually be enlarged as in the United States into teachers' colleges offering two, three, and four-year curriculums. Many educators concur in the following view as expressed by Foster:

The teacher should take to his pupils that culture which can come only from contacts with associates having various objectives and experiences. For a young person to receive all of his higher education in an atmosphere exclusively saturated with pedagogical considerations is to violate this most fundamental principle.²

A general college or university education as prerequisite to specific professional preparation is quite generally preferred today. Unfortunately, there is common an uncritical naive assumption

¹National Society of College Teachers of Education, Yearbook XXIII, the Education of Teachers, pp. 72 ff. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. (This organization will be referred to henceforth simply as the National Society.)

²H. H. Foster, "The Professional Training of Teachers from the Standpoint of the Liberal Arts College," P. 115. Thirteenth Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers' Colleges. Greeley, 1934.

that the traditional liberal arts program with its numerous electives and its inadequate guidance suffices for this purpose. In preference to such a program, certain authorities in the United States favor the well-planned and professionalized four-year program of a teachers' college.¹

Another alternative is to require that the prospective elementary school teachers complete a two-year junior college program at the provincial university prior to entering the normal school.² Still another alternative is to require prospective elementary teachers to complete the first two years of the university program and then to take their professional courses at the university also. At the university they would mingle with all other students on an equal footing. Their program could be professionalized in some measure by requiring them to take broad cultural courses, and by providing systematic guidance for them in their choice of the remaining courses. At the present time the two latter alternatives seem more feasible than that of developing teachers' colleges, so far as Western Canada is concerned.³ Possibly one of these alternatives may be given a trial in the near future, at least in the province of British Columbia.⁴ It might prove to be a step towards the ultimate practice of requiring the B.A. degree and a graduate year of professional preparation, not only of all high school teachers, but of elementary school teachers as well.

If the limitations on the normal school enrolments of the western provinces are maintained or increased, a gradual rise in the median level of scholarship may result. Within the near future the percentage of normal school students having second, third, or fourth year university standing may become so great that

¹United States Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No.10, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, VI, "Summary and Interpretation," 78. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935 (henceforth referred to as the report of the National Survey Committee).

²National Society, op. cit., p. 220.

³See for example W. S. Learned and E. W. Wallace, Local Provision for Higher Education in Saskatchewan, Bulletin 27, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, pp.26-39. New York: Carnegie Foundation, 1932.

⁴Pp. 66, 68.

each provincial government may be justified in closing one at least of its normal schools and charging the university with the duty of preparing not only high school teachers but also first-class elementary school teachers. Furthermore, the percentage of university graduates entering the elementary school field may greatly increase. In that case the closing of the normal schools and the preparation of all teachers in the universities would be an easy transition rather than an abrupt innovation.

As already suggested, a very important factor affecting the whole problem is the ratio of supply to demand both for elementary and for high school teachers. So far no systematic study has been made of supply-demand relationships in Western Canada.¹ The future changes in these relationships are problematical. Perhaps the lowering of teachers' salaries which has taken place as a result of the depression may be followed by a decrease in the number of candidates for teaching positions.² Perhaps the gradual improvement of conditions in other occupational fields might attract to those fields the students who have no intrinsic interest in teaching. On the other hand, the increasing attractiveness of teaching as a profession and the possibility of gradual improvement in teachers' salaries may offset these influences. It is difficult to predict what will happen. If the supply of candidates continues at the present ratio, or even increases, and if the average teacher tenure lengthens, there would appear to be ample justification for closing at least one of the normal schools in each province.

Whatever the future may bring, it is probable that for many years to come there will be in each of the four provinces both a university department of education and one or two normal schools.³ Under these conditions the problem of securing the greatest possible cooperation between these institutions and of reducing to a minimum the overlapping in their fields of service

¹Some evidence is readily available in the annual reports of the departments of education, namely, the number of students graduated each year by the normal schools and universities.

²Dominion of Canada Bureau of Statistics, Annual Survey of Education in Canada, 1934, pp. 53, 54. Ottawa, King's Printer, 1936.

³Pp. 220 ff.

assumes large importance. As already stated, there is the possibility of limiting the privileges of the holders of the highest certificates.¹ An even bolder step would be to abolish the cover-all certificates and grant to the university graduates in education a certificate covering only the secondary school grades.² In the latter case the universities would have to provide more appropriate summer school courses than they have done in the past, both for normal school graduates who are seeking the high school certificate and for university graduates who are seeking the elementary school certificate.³

The Essential Features of a Program of Teacher Education

Features present or lacking in the present curriculums.-

From the very beginning of teacher education in Western Canada the normal school and university curriculums of teacher education have consisted of general courses in education, special methods courses in the various subjects, observation, practice teaching, and extra-class voluntary activities.⁴ Additional features which are in the process of development in Manitoba and British Columbia in connection with the work of the normal schools include field periods of supervised probation of one or more years each, and required post-probation summer sessions in which both general and special-methods courses will be offered.⁵

Apparently the leaders of teacher education in the four provinces have always assumed that there should be provision for general courses in education, special methods courses, observation, and practice teaching, for nowhere in the annual reports or in the normal school syllabi are there statements to indicate that the provision of these features has been questioned. Such assumptions were evidently made by the delegates to the 1919 Conference.⁶ The report of this conference contains many discussions

¹P. 253.

²National Society, op. cit., p. 216.

³Pp. 241, 243, 245, 248.

⁴Pp. 95 ff., 189 ff.

⁵Pp. 93-94.

⁶p. 25.

concerning the number and content of the general and special courses and the nature of the observation and practice teaching, although it gives no indication that the justification for these special features was ever questioned by the delegates.

None of the curriculums contain academic or subject-matter courses.¹ The curriculums are strictly professional, in the narrower sense of that term. A few of the curriculums include periods of internship, these periods however being supervised by provincial inspectors and not by the normal school instructors.² A few of the curriculums include post-probation study courses.³ Systematic provision for individual guidance of the students is not made in any of the normal schools, although it is possible that much informal guidance is being given. No efforts of a systematic or organized nature have been made to discover and develop latent talents of a high order, although much of this work may be done informally. There is no provision of a systematic nature for the fostering of avocational interests. Occasional attempts have been made to develop in the students a spirit of community service, chiefly through the method of service projects.⁴

There are certain other features not found in the curriculums of teacher education of Western Canada which seem to be important. In none of these curriculums has systematic provision been made for bringing the student-teachers into close fellowship with girls and boys in out-of-class situations, in order that a more intimate understanding of the nature of individual children and youth may be engendered. It is true that some student-teachers already possess an intimate understanding of children and youth, due to previous experiences with Boy Scout troops, Sunday school classes, etc., or with brothers and sisters. Nevertheless, many student-teachers have not had such experiences.

Another feature that appears to be lacking is the study of social problems which have a bearing on the work of the schools. In none of the curriculums is there a course in educational sociology. Furthermore, it is to be feared that very few of the instructors give much attention to broad social problems within their

¹Tables V and X.

²Pp. 93-94, 151.

³Ibid.

⁴p. 161.

several courses on pedagogy. There seems to be a tendency to make the courses professional in a very narrow sense, detached unduly from the flow of community or provincial life, and insufficiently based upon an understanding of the Social Order.

It is obvious that all the features of a curriculum for teacher preparation should find their justification in the actual cultural and professional needs of teachers.¹ The question arises whether the people responsible for teacher education in Western Canada have ever made a systematic checking of their curriculums in the light of scientific studies of the needs of teachers. No evidence can be found that such a systematic checking has ever been attempted.

It is also obvious that those who are engaged in the work of preparing teachers should be able to justify the features of their curriculums, and in turn the conceptions which they hold concerning the nature of education and the needs of teachers, by reference to some basic philosophy of life and education.² The data which have been presented relating to the contents of the present-day curriculums, and the opinions of the heads of the various institutions which have been reported, indicate that there are numerous differences between the curriculums of teacher education in Western Canada.³ These differences give rise to the suspicion that many of the instructors have not yet thought out in a sufficiently clear fashion their philosophy of general education or of teacher education, nor formulated on the basis of that philosophy the major purposes or objectives of their work. Study of the needs of the peoples of the four provinces would lead one to say that the major objectives should differ little if any from province to province or from institution to institution, and that therefore practices should show considerable similarity. Yet there are so many divergencies. Some of these can be justified

¹W. W. Charters and D. Waples, The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

²J. F. Bobbitt, How to Make a Curriculum, pp. 1-6. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1924; Q. A. Kuehner, A Philosophy of Education, pp. 1-52. New York: Prentice Hall, 1925; and R. Rusk, Philosophic Bases of Education, pp. 1-23. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1928.

³Tables II to XVIII; also pp. 171 ff., and 237 ff.

by differences in purely local conditions, but some cannot be so justified. It seems imperative that those who are engaged in the work of teacher education in the western provinces should formulate their educational philosophy and their major objectives of education more carefully than they have done in the past, and be guided by them continuously when working out the details of curriculum and method.

Possible extensions of the normal school curriculums.-

Professor Laird of Montreal asserted at a recent convention of the Canadian Educational Association that if the curriculums for elementary school teachers were to be lengthened by one year he would prefer the first year to be spent in further academic preparation prior to normal school matriculation.¹ At the same convention Dr. Strayer of Columbia advocated a four-year curriculum for elementary school teachers, and pointed to the rapid increase in the number of three-year and four-year curriculums in the United States. These views represent two radically different conceptions of a curriculum for the preparation of teachers. The curriculums of the Canadian normal schools are professional in the narrower sense of that term, whereas the typical curriculums of the United States include academic courses as well as courses in education, these academic courses being "professionalized" in varying degrees.²

In British Columbia, Manitoba, Alberta, and Ontario, curriculum extensions of a different nature have been made in recent years, which involve additional private reading (Alberta),³ course work in summer schools (British Columbia),⁴ additional reading plus course work in summer schools (Manitoba),⁵ or a year of post-probation professional study (Ontario).⁶ The extension plan of Manitoba and British Columbia provides for more preparation than

¹Canadian Educational Association, Proceedings of the Fifteenth Convention, p. 69. Montreal, 1929.

²National Survey Committee, op. cit., III, 8-11, and VI, 79.

³Alberta Department of Education, Alberta Normal Schools, 1932-33.

⁴Pp. 93-94.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid.

does the Alberta plan, and is obviously less expensive to the provincial government and to the student-teacher than the Ontario plan. It may therefore merit the consideration of the authorities of Alberta and Saskatchewan. It can be tried out with little additional cost to the provincial governments, and with little increase in the cost of preparation to the student-teachers themselves, since there is already a summer school in each of the four provinces where both academic and professional courses are given, and where a large number of the young teachers-in-service are in attendance.¹

The evolution of teacher education in Western Canada may be somewhat different from that taking place in the United States.² Not one of the eight normal school principals has expressed himself as favoring the adoption of the four-year teachers'-college plan as the ideal towards which the authorities of Western Canada should strive.³ They prefer a progressive elevation of the normal school academic entrance requirements, and also the lengthening of the strictly professional program either by adding a year or by adding a period of supervised internship and one or two required post-probation summer sessions. However, they are in accord with the judgments of leaders in the United States in favoring the best possible academic preparation of elementary school teachers,⁴ and in favoring a period of carefully supervised internship.⁵

Possible extensions of the university curriculums.— Like the normal school curriculums, none of the university curriculums for teacher education contain subject-matter courses.⁶ Each of the four curriculums is a one-year curriculum open to university graduates only, and each of them is strictly professional, in the narrower sense of that term. No evidence can be found of any move to add subject-matter courses. Whether or not the curriculum should be considered as beginning with the freshman year, the sophomore year, the junior year, or the senior year is a question

¹Pp. 241, 243, 245, 248.

²Table I.

³Pp. 93-94.

⁴National Society, op. cit., p. 12.

⁵Ibid., pp. 173 ff.

⁶Tables XV and XIX.

which apparently has not arisen in Western Canada. It is assumed that the professional curriculum is graduate in nature, and is composed entirely of pedagogical features. The question arises whether this conception is the true one. It differs from that prevalent in the United States, where the curriculums for teacher education are conceived as beginning in the undergraduate years, but agrees with the conception prevalent in England, Scotland, and Germany.¹

The proposals of the heads of the four university departments for extending the total graduate curriculum differ greatly.² One head proposes beginning the professional preparation of the teachers in the undergraduate years by regarding the academic courses as part of the curriculum for teachers and "professionalizing them" in some degree, the arrangement common in the United States.³ Another favors a continuous two-year graduate curriculum.⁴ A third advocates a post-probation session to follow after a period of internship.⁵ This sharp divergence of opinion raises two problems, that pertaining to the total length of the university curriculum and that pertaining to the nature of the extension or extensions to be made. These problems may possibly press for solution in the future. At present they do not seem to concern any one of the four heads very much. There is no evidence of a strong movement to effect any one of the three extensions which have been proposed. Perhaps the fact that the required post-probation summer session has been adopted for the lengthening of the normal school curriculums of Manitoba and British Columbia may in time influence the normal schools of the other two provinces to adopt a similar course, and the universities as well.⁶

Adequacy of the General Academic Education of Normal School and University Student-Teachers

The academic preparation of the normal school students.-

¹I.L.Kandel (ed.), International Institute of Teachers' College, Yearbook, 1927, p. 487. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1928; also Scottish National Committee for the Training of Teachers, Prospectus of General Information, p. 6. Edinburgh, 1932.

²Pp. 184 ff.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Pp. 93-94.

In Chapter III it was shown that there has been a gradual lengthening of the high school normal entrance curriculum in each of the four provinces.¹ In the pioneer years of teacher education the normal entrance requirement in all four provinces was the completion of one year of high school work.² This did not necessarily mean that the normal entrance candidates had completed nine grades of elementary and high school work, for Saskatchewan had a "6-3" system, Alberta a system of eight standards, and British Columbia a "6-2" system.³ In 1914 Manitoba made Grade X the minimum prerequisite, and in 1915 Grade XI.⁴ Corresponding steps were taken by Saskatchewan in 1920 and 1926,⁵ by Alberta in 1912 and 1924,⁶ and by British Columbia in 1923 and 1924.⁷ In 1930 British Columbia went a step further and required the completion of Grade XII as the minimum normal entrance requirement.⁸ In the latter province another change is now impending. The minister of education has announced that the government intends to make the completion of one year beyond Grade XII the minimum entrance requirement.⁹ The trend towards higher normal entrance requirements which has been manifested in all four provinces, and the advance beyond the other provinces which has been made in British Columbia, raise the fundamental issue as to what academic preparation should be required of prospective elementary-school teachers preliminary to their entrance into the normal schools. Possibly it is desirable that elementary school teachers should have completed the junior college course prior to taking the professional course. If so, even British Columbia has not reached the desired level. Possibly it is desirable that elementary school teachers should complete the senior college course - at least those teachers who are to be given the first-class certificate. If so, all four provinces still have a long way to go to reach the ideal. At present the three prairie provinces face the problem of deciding whether they should follow the lead of Ontario, British Columbia, and various states

¹Pp. 54 ff.

²Pp. 55, 57, 59, 63.

³Pp. 57, 59, 62.

⁴Pp. 55-56.

⁵P. 58.

⁶P. 59.

⁷Pp. 62, 64.

⁸P. 65.

⁹Speech of Dr. G. M. Weir, November 2, 1935.

of the United States and make Grade XII the minimum requirement for normal school entrance. The more basic issue for all four provinces is not the length of the normal entrance curriculum, but rather its adequacy for the development of those interests, attitudes, habits, items of knowledge, coordinations of knowledge, concepts, language powers, skills, etc., which should be possessed by an elementary school teacher.¹

The trend in Western Canada towards the lengthening of the normal entrance curriculum is in accord with trends in various countries. Although in the United States a few states have no minimum scholarship requirement for rural teachers, yet the common normal entrance requirement is the completion of Grade XII.² In Germany since the war the elementary school teachers have been required to take four years of elementary school education and nine years of secondary education preliminary to their pedagogical course.³ In England the percentage of teachers' college entrants who have passed the Second Examination is steadily increasing.⁴

The National Survey Committee recommends that the professional curriculum for elementary teachers be based upon the completion of a junior college education.⁵ If this requirement were adopted by the provinces of Western Canada there would doubtless result such an increase in the ability and scholarship of the normal school classes that the professional curriculum could be organized at a higher level. It has been indicated that the requirement of junior college standing for normal school entrance seems to be feasible at the present time in British Columbia.⁶

The preceding discussion leads to a consideration of the high school normal entrance curriculums of the four provinces.

¹Charters and Waples, op. cit., pp. 56-61 and 223 ff.

²United States Office of Education, Professional Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools, Bulletin 1928, No. 6, p. 63. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1930.

³H. T. Becker, "The Problem of Teacher Training in Germany," p. 532, International Institute Yearbook, 1927. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1927.

⁴International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, p. 467.

⁵National Survey Committee, op. cit., p. 220.

⁶P. 272.

There are large time allotments for English language and literature, social studies, science, arithmetic, and mathematics, but the nature of the courses varies greatly from province to province.¹ The time allotments for foreign languages, art, music, and health education vary greatly, as does the nature of the latter courses.² The numerous differences in the four normal entrance curriculums indicate that there is a large amount of disagreement among the "authorities" of the four departments of education as to what should be the academic preparation of a prospective elementary school teacher.

Electives are provided in the secondary schools of all four provinces. The number of electives varies greatly from center to center, but it is especially small in the rural schools.³ Among the electives are those courses in art, music, geography, arithmetic, and grammar which are prescribed for normal school matriculants but not for university matriculants. One of the major problems to be faced in carrying out a policy of curriculum differentiation is how to provide these required special normal entrance courses in the smaller high schools, where the teachers are fully engaged in teaching the courses of the dominant university matriculation curriculum. The requirement of the completion of a broad junior college program of the type advocated by Gray and others⁴ would automatically solve the problem which has been raised, for then the distinction between the normal entrance program and the university matriculation program would no longer exist. The teachers in the secondary schools would no longer be concerned with "special" normal entrance courses, and the normal school instructors would not have to concern themselves so much with serious deficiencies in English or in the fundamental foundations of knowledge.

The facts cited in Chapter III show that academic standing is the chief prerequisite for normal entrance.⁵ Minimum prerequisites for health and character have been set in each of the

¹Table II, also pp. 70 ff. ²Ibid.

³See provincial high school courses of study.

⁴National Society, op. cit., pp. 79-83.

⁵Pp. 66-68.

four provinces,¹ but the standards cannot be very high, for very few candidates are turned away on the ground of deficiencies.² The question arises whether these two criteria of fitness should be given more recognition, even though numerical ratings are not available for them as is the case with scholarship. This question is being seriously considered in various quarters today. Strong arguments in favor of using criteria other than academic standing have been presented in various books and reports on teacher education.³

The academic preparation of the university student-teachers.— The university departments of education of the four provinces have always required the completion of the B. A. course as the prerequisite for admittance into their classes for teacher education.⁴ No evidence can be found of any desire to lower this requirement, or on the other hand of any desire to require the M.A. degree for admittance to the professional course. However, an interesting departure is seen in British Columbia, where the imposition of an enrolment limitation of sixty has made it possible to reject those candidates who rank lowest in undergraduate scholarship.⁵ It is to be noted that completion of the university arts course preliminary to specific teacher preparation is the recognized standard in England,⁶ Scotland,⁷ and Germany.⁸ In the United States a common plan is to give the high school teacher his professional preparation within the last one or two years of his B.A. course. However, there is a growing demand in that country for the extension of the combined academic and professional course from four to five years. California has already adopted

¹Pp. 66-68.

²No evidence could be found that any large number of candidates are being turned away from the normal schools on these grounds.

³National Society, op. cit., Chapter II; also A.R.Mead, Supervised Student Teaching, pp.335 ff. New York:Johnson, 1930.

⁴P. 75.

⁵P. 76.

⁶International Institute, Yearbook 1927, p. 487.

⁷Scottish National Committee, op. cit., p. 6.

⁸The Doctor's degree in Germany.

the five-year plan.¹

The fact was pointed out earlier that the undergraduate curriculums of the four universities differ widely from one another.² No two sets of required courses show great similarity.³ Admittedly they are all alike in that none of them include required courses in the natural sciences or the social sciences. It is a question whether this is a virtue, or a deficiency. There are many electives, even in the freshman and sophomore years, and these electives differ from center to center. Such being the case, there is no assurance that the students are developing a well-balanced and comprehensive education. It is commonly acknowledged that elementary and secondary school teachers should have among their qualifications richness of personal experience, balance and depth or scholarship, wholesomeness and diversity of interests, originality of thinking, creativeness, liberality of view, and the spirit of service.⁴ Perhaps the development of some of these qualities could be fostered more effectively in the undergraduate years if the program of required courses were radically revised so as to ensure for each student a broad and well-balanced education. Stratemeyer states that in the New College of Columbia University "one point of emphasis will be to acquaint the student with the major fields of human activity."⁵ The same purpose is indicated in the undergraduate requirements outlined in the recent catalogues of such leading universities as Chicago and Stanford, and is also referred to in several recent articles on teacher edu-

¹National Society, op. cit., p. 12; also C.M.Hill, "A Five-Year Plan for the Professional Training of the Secondary School Teachers," Educational Administration and Supervision, September 1932, pp. 427, 429.

²Table III; also pp. 76-78. ³Ibid.

⁴C.H.Judd, "Next Steps in the Improvement of Teacher Training," pp. 25 ff., Twelfth Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers' Colleges, Cleveland, 1933; National Society, op. cit., pp. 5, 43-50, 95-98, 111-19; American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies, Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, XVI, Conclusions and Recommendations, pp. 77-84. New York: Scribners, 1934.

⁵F. B. Stratemeyer, "Proposed Experiment in Teacher Training," Educational Administration and Supervision, XVIII (May, 1932), 356. Also R. Pulliam, XX, 108; and P. Sangren, XX, 362.

ucation.¹

The programs of the universities of Western Canada (Table III) vary from the recommended programs of the National Survey Committee in that they are least prescriptive where the latter are most prescriptive, namely, in the fields of the social sciences, the natural sciences, the fine arts, and hygiene.² It is to be noted that the junior college programs of Stanford University³ and the University of Chicago⁴ make provision for required courses of a broad cultural nature in the biological sciences, the natural sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. Similar requirements are also found in the program at Colorado Teachers' College.⁵

Guidance in the universities with respect to the choice of elective courses is quite informal and unsystematic, whether for prospective teachers or for others.⁶ Furthermore, there is as yet no unanimity of opinion in Canada concerning the desirability of a systematic program of guidance.⁷ Such a program is being followed in the lower divisions of many American teachers' colleges,⁸ and such groups of investigators as the National Survey Committee and the Committee of the National Society of College Teachers insist that it is very important.⁹ Whether or not young persons who are good prospects as teachers should be sought out, encouraged, and given counsel in the planning of their undergraduate courses, the poor prospects being advised to elect other programs, is a problem that merits serious consideration.¹⁰

¹Benjamin, op. cit., p. 4; also International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, p. 535.

²National Society, op. cit., pp. 103-107.

³Stanford University, Information, 1932, pp. 137-38.

⁴University of Chicago, Announcements for Arts, Literature, and Science, 1932, pp. 24, 49-62.

⁵Colorado State Teachers' College, Bulletin, 1932, p. 34.

⁶Pp. 81-82.

⁷Ibid.

⁸D.W.Pearce and O.H.Williams, "Trends in the Development of American Teachers' Colleges," Educational Administration and Supervision, XVII (November, 1932), 625.

⁹National Society, op. cit., pp. 5, 234.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 62.

Requirements for undergraduate specialization in one or more academic teaching fields differ considerably.¹ British Columbia's requirement of at least three advanced courses in each of two teaching fields is by far the most specific.² The question arises whether the other provinces should make a similar requirement. It was shown in Chapters II and VI that they have a smaller demand than British Columbia for one-subject or two-subject specialists.³ The great proportion of "continuation" schools and of small rural high schools in the prairie provinces implies a relatively great demand for generalists and a relatively small demand for narrow specialists.⁴ Even in British Columbia the demand for narrow specialists is not very great, partly because of the fact that very few specialists are assigned to their chosen fields in their first years of teaching.⁵ Possibly a modification of the British Columbia plan, that is, the requirement of special preparation in two or three broad fields based upon and following after the completion of three or four required courses at the junior college level, might meet the needs both for general preparation and for specialization.

The requirement for undergraduate specialization at present made in British Columbia is similar in a way to that made at most teachers' colleges and schools of education in the United States, although it is somewhat broader in scope.⁶ One of the requirements for those who wish to take the course in practice teaching at the University of Chicago is that they must "give evidence of intensive study in a subject-matter field."⁷ Teachers' College of Columbia University requires that a candidate for the B.Sc. in Education must have a minimum of eighteen points of academic credit in his major field.⁸ In Colorado State Teachers' College those seeking the B.A. degree in Education must complete one major of

¹Pp. 78-79.

²Ibid.

³Pp. 14-15, 224-225, 227.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Pp. 219-220.

⁶I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education, pp. 856-57. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1933.

⁷University of Chicago, Announcement, 1932, p. 370.

⁸Teachers' College, Columbia, Bulletin, 1932, p. 5.

forty-eight hours and two minors of twenty-four hours each.¹ It is evidently the practice in the better known institutions to require the attainment of high standing in at least one academic field. This is also the common practice in England,² France,³ and Germany.⁴

Judd condemns most vigorously the system of narrow one-subject or two-subject specialization, even for those whose possible destiny may be in the departmentalized city high schools.⁵ Condemnation of narrow specialization is also expressed by both the National Survey Committee and the Committee of the National Society of College Teachers. They assert that "curricula for high school teachers should prescribe initial competency in two or three teaching fields."⁶ It is to be noticed that the word "fields" is used, not "subjects." Evidently the Canadian practice is in line with the recommendations of these leaders.

The requirements in Western Canada vary with respect to undergraduate courses in philosophy, psychology, and education.⁷ Three undergraduate courses in philosophy and psychology are required in Alberta. One undergraduate course in general psychology is required in British Columbia; an education course is available for the third and fourth year students, but is not required. In none of the universities are undergraduate courses in education required of prospective teachers.⁸ As has been noted, the heads of the university departments are at considerable variance in their views as to what undergraduate courses in philosophy, psychology, and education should be required.⁹ The problem arises whether all prospective high school teachers should take during their undergraduate years a course in general philosophy, a course in general

¹Colorado State Teachers' College, Bulletin, 1932, p. 34.

²International Institute Yearbook, 1927, p. 488.

³Ibid., p. 578.

⁴I. L. Kandel, History of Secondary Education, p. 277.

⁵C. H. Judd, op. cit., p. 29.

⁶National Society, op. cit., p. 227.

⁷Pp. 189 ff.

⁸Pp. 76 ff.

⁹Ibid

psychology, or a course or courses in education, and if so, then in what years or at what levels. There is obviously need for a careful study of this problem. It is apparent that the problem is not quite the same in Canada as in the United States, where it is the common practice to include the professional program for high school teachers within the A.B. course.

There is no evidence in any of the provinces that professionalization of the undergraduate subject-matter courses has been attempted. The term "professionalization" has of course various shades of meaning. Whatever meaning is adopted, it is obvious that in institutions where the classes comprise both prospective teachers and others the academic courses cannot be professionalized to any large degree. Apparently any professionalization of the undergraduate program for prospective teachers in the Canadian universities, if it could be called such, would consist chiefly of providing (a) courses of a broad cultural nature which are essential for all teachers, and (b) more adequate educational guidance to the students with respect to choice of elective courses in the fields of specialization.

The Professional Courses of a General Nature

The courses offered.— Educational psychology, history of education, and school and classroom management or school administration have been features of the normal school and university curriculums in every province almost from the beginning.¹ Evidently the heads of the various institutions are unanimous in their agreement as to the need of these courses. Philosophy of education has had a chequered career. It was offered for a few years in the Alberta normal schools, and then dropped.² It has never been offered in the normal schools of British Columbia. For many years the subject was not offered in Saskatchewan, but in 1930 it was incorporated into the normal school curriculum.³ It was a prescribed subject in Manitoba during the early years,⁴ then it was made a reading course, but later was reinstated as a subject of the basic curriculum.⁵ It is a required course in the

¹Pp. 95 ff., and 189 ff.

²P. 98.

³P. 97.

⁴P. 95.

⁵P. 96.

universities of Saskatchewan and Manitoba, but not in the other two universities. The only other general course worthy of separate mention is general methods. This course is at present offered only in the normal schools of Saskatchewan.¹ School law, supervision, tests and measurements, statistics, educational sociology, and curriculum theory have rarely been given as separate courses. Significant materials from school law and supervision have usually been incorporated into the course on management or administration.² In all but one center, tests and measurements and statistics have been placed either with educational psychology or with school management.³ Very little of the substance of educational sociology and curriculum theory is given. What is given is included as part of other courses, such as the course on principles or philosophy of education offered in the Manitoba and Saskatchewan normal schools.⁴

The foregoing statements indicate that there is unanimity among the provinces with respect to the provisions of courses in educational psychology, management, and history of education, but great diversity of practice with respect to the other courses. This diversity raises the question as to what courses of a general nature should be provided. The courses on educational psychology, management, and history of education may be desirable, but they certainly should not be taken for granted just because of their acceptance in the past. It is legitimate to ask at this point whether there are any other educational courses of a general nature, other than the special methods courses, which should be included in the curriculum. A still more basic problem is the selection of the facts, concepts, skills, etc. which ought to be included in the program of teacher education, and the decision as to which of these would be placed within the general courses of education rather than in special methods courses.

Educational psychology.— The facts presented in Tables VII and XVI indicate many points of similarity in the courses in edu-

¹P.100. It is also to be added to the university curriculum at Vancouver as a brief coordinating course.

²Pp. 108 ff., and 198 ff. ³Pp. 100 and 193 ff.

⁴Table VI, and p. 103.

cational psychology.¹ The principals agree in giving an important place to the subject, and their judgments are supported by those of leaders throughout England,² Germany,³ and the United States.⁴ All the courses are based on textbooks. These textbooks show great diversity in content, although most of them are reasonably modern. The course outlines vary considerably, but they indicate that the instructors have endeavored to make the work as practical and helpful as possible. The study of "instincts" and such general topics as imagination, sensation, perception, and will has given place to studies of individual differences, environmental influences, motivation, processes of growth, conditions and laws of learning, mental hygiene, etc., although the emphasis on these topics varies greatly. These changes of content are in accord with those being made in the courses on educational psychology in other countries.⁵ In some centers measurements is a section of the psychology course; in others it is either placed with administration or neglected. Little information can be obtained from the syllabi or from the principals themselves concerning the content of the sections on measurements and statistics.⁶ Apparently these latter sections are very fragmentary and elementary. In general, the evidence shows that there is considerable agreement as to what should be the chief features of the course in educational psychology. It is obvious however that the mere concensus of opinion or practice of the instructors of an area is not adequate justification. In none of the courses is serious effort being made to develop in the student-teachers a more intimate knowledge of and sympathy for actual living children, and yet this would seem to be as important a phase of educational psychology as the study of textbooks.

¹Pp. 103 ff., and 193 ff.

²International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, p. 478.

³Ibid., pp. 537-539.

⁴National Society, op. cit., pp. 4, 110, 112, and 224; also National Society, Yearbook, XX, The Direct Contribution of Educational Psychology to Teacher Training, pp. 1-5.

⁵Pearce and Williams, op. cit., p. 628; also F. G. Davis, "Trends in the Education of Teachers," Educational Administration and Supervision, XVIII (May, 1932), 374.

⁶Tables VII and XVI, also pp. 105-106, 191 ff.

School management or administration.- Comparison of the courses on school management reveals the following facts:¹ 1) In every center the course is eminently practical, dealing with numerous aspects of school and classroom management both for city and rural schools; 2) Classroom management usually receives more attention than school management; 3) In almost all centers the course contains sections on the provincial school system and on school law, only certain portions of the provincial manual of school law being selected for study; 4) Very little attention is paid to school supervision; 5) Miscellaneous information concerning the teaching profession is usually included; 6) the time allotments vary greatly, ranging from 21 hours to 54 hours; 7) The textbooks vary greatly, and also the titles of the courses; 8) Some of the university courses include sections on measurements, statistics, supervision, and school finance. The most striking difference appears to be that of the time allotments, the Victoria normal school allotment being over twice that of the Winnipeg normal school. The question arises whether such differences in time allotment seriously affect the quality of some of the curriculums; that is, whether they mean a serious curtailment of the course in certain centers or a waste of time and a robbing of the remaining courses in the other centers. It is noticeable that no great differences of opinion are found concerning the value of the course, all of the principals regarding it as very practical and hence very necessary. These judgments are in accord with those of Peik, Rugg, and others.² What is noticeable is the divergence of view and practice with respect to the inclusion within the course, or the emphasis within the course, of sections on measurements, statistics, supervision, school finance, and rural problems.³

History of education.- Some interesting facts are found from an analysis of the courses in history of education.⁴ The time allotments range from 8 hours to 42 hours in the normal schools and from 53 to 75 hours in the universities.⁵ Such ranges

¹Tables VIII and XVII, also pp. 108 ff., 198 ff.

²National Society, op. cit., pp. 109, 112, 113, 224; also Charters and Waples, op. cit., pp. 264 ff.

³Tables VIII and XVII, also pp. 108 ff., 198 ff.

⁴Tables IX and XVIII.

⁵Tables V and XV.

indicate how largely fortuitous and haphazard are the present time allotments, and how subjective are the opinions of the principals with respect to time apportionments. The courses are alike in that they treat very sketchily the history of education in ancient and mediaeval times.¹ Most of them are also alike in according much attention to the 17th, 18th, and 19th century reformers, and in paying little attention to the 20th century reformers. They differ greatly from each other in the proportion of attention paid to practices on the one hand and to theories or philosophies on the other. In this respect the normal school courses in British Columbia differ markedly from those of Manitoba and Saskatchewan,² the courses of the two latter provinces containing much material relating to practice as well as to theory, and also including sections on modern movements and on the history of education in Canada.

Such great differences in content and time allotments are indicative of wide disagreements as to the value of the course, and hence raise the question as to whether or not it should be retained in the pre-service curriculum. Most of the principals and university heads favor its retention, although two of the normal school principals would have it offered only to the "First Class" students.³ Two of the principals favor dropping their course in philosophy of education and putting its content into the course on history of education.

Neither the National Survey Committee nor the Committee of the National Society specify history of education as a course to be included in the pre-service curriculum. The reports of Frazier,⁴ Jones,⁵ and Pearce and Williams⁶ show that history of

¹Tables IX and XVIII.

²Tables XVIII, also pp. 112 ff.

³p. 116.

⁴B. W. Frazier, "Professional Education of Teachers," p. 27. United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1931, No. 20. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931.

⁵W. M. Jones, The Status of History of Education in Teacher-Training Courses in the United States, p. 32. M. A. thesis, University of Oregon, 1930.

⁶D. W. Pearce and O. H. Williams, op. cit., p. 628.

education is being given much less attention now than in the past in the teachers' colleges of the United States. In the University of London Day Training College the course is offered only as an option and only to prospective secondary-school teachers, although the required one-term course on the English educational system includes some study of the recent history of education in England.¹ One might infer from the foregoing statements that the tendency is either to abolish history of education as a part of the pre-service curriculum or to condense it. On the other hand, various leaders continue to champion the subject as a part of the basic curriculum. Woody asserts that when studied by people of intelligence and taught by instructors possessing adequate scholarship the subject performs several important functions, notably the development of critical judgment and appreciation with respect to present day theories and practices.²

Philosophy of education.- As already stated, a required course in principles of education or philosophy of education has been given in the normal schools and universities of Manitoba and Saskatchewan for many years, though not continuously.³ There is no move apparent in British Columbia or Alberta to create such a course, and one of the Saskatchewan principals has suggested that it be dropped and its valuable material placed in other courses, chiefly in history of education.⁴ In the judgment of the National Survey Committee, curriculums for teachers should make provision for the development of a "working philosophy of life and education."⁵ This obviously need not entail the provision of a separate course in philosophy of education.

Other courses.- The normal school principals and the university heads differ greatly in their views as to the nature and course placement of the sections on measurements and statistics.⁶

¹London County Council, London Day Training College, Notes on the Professional Courses, pp. 5 and 9. London, 1929.

²T. Woody, "A Functional Concept of the History of Education," Yearbook XXII, National Society of College Teachers of Education, pp. 16-17. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933.

³Pp. 103, 193; Tables V and XV. ⁴Pp. 103, 280.

⁵National Society, op. cit., p. 113.

⁶Pp. 108 and 197.

There is also great diversity with respect to curriculum arrangements.¹ Apparently there has not been sufficient study concerning the selection of those materials from measurements and statistics which should be included in the pre-service curriculum of teachers, or concerning the nature of the course, courses, or course placements for such materials.

A separate course in introduction to education is not provided in any of the curriculums.² The view commonly heard in Western Canada is that the entire year of professional preparation constitutes an orientation, and that a separate course called Introduction to Education is not necessary, even in the professional program. Materials of general informational value are given in all of the courses, but chiefly in the course on school and classroom management.³ There is no course or section of a course on library management in the normal schools. Library training for teachers has been zealously advocated by the American Library Association and by the Canadian Library Association.⁴ The question arises whether there is time for a short separate course, or whether such work should be made a definite section of a methods course, such as English literature.

None of the curriculums contains a separate course on rural life or education. All the normal school principals have provided special periods of observation and practice for their students in the country schools.⁵ The rural experience thus obtained by the students is being utilized to some extent by the instructors in the discussions in their courses, but there is no evidence to show whether they are making adequate use of this instructional material, or whether it is better to trust to occasional discussions of rural problems rather than offer a definite course or section of a course on rural life.

Time allotments.— In the normal schools the percentages

¹Pp. 100, 193 ff.

²Tables V and XV.

³Tables VIII and XVII.

⁴A.L.A. School Libraries Committee, "Library Standards for Teachers' Colleges," Educational Administration and Supervision, XVII (October, 1931), 499-511.

⁵National Society, op cit., pp. 4, 89, 122, 224.

of the total lecture time devoted to general courses in education average twenty-four (Table V), while in the university departments they average fifty-seven (Table XV). These averages differ so markedly that they at once provoke the question as to which is nearer the ideal. Learned and Bagley assert that "the principal emphasis in the year of professional study should be upon the subject matter which the students are preparing to teach."¹ On the other hand, Putman and Weir criticise the normal schools of British Columbia (1925) for devoting too large a percentage of their time to the special methods courses.² There might be justification for some difference between the normal-school and university time allotments, first of all because the normal school students are much less mature than the university graduates and may therefore be in need of more subject-by-subject curriculum study, and secondly, because a much larger percentage of the normal school students are destined to become generalists, teaching all or almost all of the subjects. However, the difference in time allotments which has been mentioned seems too great to be justifiable.

General theory versus specific methods.- In their questionnaire replies several of the principals asserted that in the normal schools there was too much teaching of theory as contrasted with teaching of specific methods.³ Presumably they had in mind when making this contrast the general courses in education. This raises the question whether it is necessary to set up an anti-thesis; whether "theory" should be thought of as separate from "practice." It seems desirable that theory and practice should be associated as closely as possible.

The usual connotation of "theory" appears to be a rather vague one. Those who use the term often include in its meaning not only theory, but also appreciational background. It seems pertinent to point out that much of the substance of the general courses in education, particularly of history of education, philosophy of education, and educational psychology, is of value as general appreciational background, rather than as foundational

¹Learned and Bagley, op. cit., p. 393.

²Putman and Weir, op. cit., p. 229.

³p. 153.

theory upon which specific methods should be based. Apparently much confusion has arisen from the practice of giving the name "theory" to both foundational theory and appreciational background.

The Special Methods Courses

A. The Special Methods Courses of the Normal Schools

Their objectives and nature.- In Western Canada courses concerning the pedagogy of the various elementary school subjects have always been features of the normal school curriculums.¹ Several methods courses were provided during the early years of teacher education,² and from time to time additional methods courses were added.³ Their two chief functions are to acquaint the students with the curriculum and methodology of the several school subjects.⁴ Review of elementary school knowledge is a function which varies in importance from center to center, but in all the normal schools it is one of minor significance.⁵ The normal schools of British Columbia were severely criticized by Putnam and Weir for overemphasizing the "tricks of the trade" in their methods courses.⁶ By implication this criticism might also be extended to the normal schools of the other provinces. The same criticism is made by Melby concerning the methods courses commonly offered in the United States.⁷ On the other hand, many of the normal school principals contend that there has been too much teaching of unrelated theory, and emphasize the importance of making the curriculum as practical as possible.⁸ It is a question which of these two contentions is the more sound. It might be that both the critics and the men they criticize have taken exaggerated positions.

The methods courses seem to be noticeably deficient in

¹Pp. 118-125.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

⁴Pp. 134-135.

⁵Ibid., also pp. 128-131.

⁶Pp. 124-125.

⁷School of Education, Northwestern University, Preparation and Improvement of Teachers, p. 145. Evanston, 1933.

⁸p. 153.

their provisions for the study of the following matters:¹ Contribution of the subject to the ultimate aims of education; place of the subject in the total curriculum; extra-curricular activities related to the subject; professional reading in the field; and experimentation in the field. Whether or not special methods courses should include a study of the history of the subjects with which they deal is debatable, partly because of the limited time available, and partly because of the consideration that the courses in history of education which are given in each of the normal schools might possibly fulfil this function.

The question arises as to what ought to be the aims and contents of the special-methods courses. The National Survey Committee and the Committee of the National Society consider that the study of teaching techniques should be an essential part of the professional curriculum.² Rugg advocates the following as features of the special methods courses: the place of the subject in the entire school curriculum; general and specific objectives; selection of materials and equipment; methods of teaching; guidance of pupils' activities, both curricular and extra-curricular: use of tests; and problems of content and method in the field.³ Peik would add the following: professional reading in the field; experimentation in the field; history of the subject; and contributions of the subject to the realization of the great general aims of education.⁴ The methods courses of the Western Canadian normal schools vary considerably with respect to most of these features.

The number and relationships of the courses given.- With the exception of the Winnipeg normal schools, where a short methods course in French is given, none of the normal schools give methods courses in the subjects peculiar to the high schools.⁵ Required courses on the pedagogy of spelling, grammar, composition, reading, literature, writing, nature study, geography, arithmetic, art, and music are given in all schools, although the first five subjects are sometimes found embodied in combination courses.⁶

¹Pp. 125 ff., 206 ff.

²National Society, op. cit., pp. 4 and 113-114.

³Ibid., p. 113.

⁴Ibid., pp. 113-14.

⁵Pp. 125, 131, also Table X.

⁶Table X.

History and civics are everywhere offered in combination.¹ Hygiene is offered as a separate subject in some schools and in combination with physical education in others.² In no center is there a methods course in manual training or in industrial arts. Household science is offered in the normal schools of British Columbia and Saskatchewan, and in abbreviated form in one of the Manitoba schools. Primary methods is offered as a separate course in the Manitoba normal schools and at Vancouver; in the other normal schools the primary grade methods for the various subjects are studied in the methods courses for those subjects.³

At the 1919 conference a resolution was adopted favoring the plan of a greatly reduced number of methods courses.⁴ Scrutiny of Table X shows that this recommendation has not been acted upon to any great extent.⁵ The number of courses offered ranges from ten to sixteen, and in most of the normal schools all or practically all of the courses extend throughout the session.⁶ Some merging of courses has taken place, especially between the subjects in the field of English; between physiology, hygiene, and physical education; between history and civics; and between nature study and agriculture.

The facts which have been presented provoke the question as to how many special-methods courses should be included in the prescribed normal school curriculum. The recommendation of 1919 has not been acted upon to any great extent.⁷ It might be that the arrangement of half-year courses is not feasible as a means of simplifying the time schedule. Course mergers as means of simplification seem somewhat more feasible.⁸ If this plan were adopted, questions would arise concerning the mergers that should be made. Scrutiny of Table X shows that at present there is much disagreement on this question.

Effect of raising normal entrance requirements upon the nature of the methods courses.—As indicated in Chapter III, the gradual raising of the normal entrance scholarship requirements

¹Table X.

³P. 129.

⁵Pp. 126-127.

⁷Pp. 125-129.

²Ibid.

⁴Pp. 119-120.

⁶Table X.

⁸Table X.

in each of the four provinces has resulted in a progressive improvement in the quality of the methods courses, for the instructors have been able to take more knowledge for granted and therefore to reduce the time devoted to mere reviewing.¹ The great increase in the proportion of the "Grade XIII" students in the British Columbia normal schools has still further benefited the work of the special methods instructors.² An important question is whether the gradual raising of the normal entrance requirements should be accompanied by any changes in the methods courses other than the mere reduction of reviewing. This in turn leads to the question whether the functions of methods courses for normal school students should differ in any essential respects from the functions of those courses for university graduates, in view of the fact that the latter students have had so much more preparatory academic education.

Provisions for specialization.— Electives are not offered in the normal schools of Western Canada.³ In each institution all the students take the single prescribed curriculum.⁴ There is no evidence of a strong move for the provision of opportunities for specialization in the pre-service curriculum. The question arises whether such a provision should be made. Obviously little time is available for electives in a one-year curriculum. Specialization of studies comes after normal school graduation, those teachers who are ambitious either going to summer school or relinquishing their positions for one or more years in order to attend a college or university.⁵

Although the principle is accepted that provisions should be made for individual differences, there seems to be little likelihood that electives will be offered so long as the normal schools remain one-year institutions.⁵ Many informal differentiations are of course already being made with respect to the field work. For example, those students who manifest a special aptitude and liking for the teaching of certain grades are allowed to do a greater amount of observation and teaching in those grades.

Formal specialization in the one-year normal school curriculums seems impracticable for another reason. Very few students

¹Pp. 120, 124.

²Pp. 65, 68-69.

³Pp. 131-133.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Pp. 253 ff.

⁶Pp. 131-133.

know beforehand whether they will be called upon to teach in ungraded schools, in small rural graded schools, or in large urban schools; in primary, intermediate, or senior grades; or in one or more of the elementary school subjects.¹ As regards the desirability of differentiation between the preparation of rural teachers and that of urban teachers, several of the normal school principals have held the opinion recently expressed by Katherine Cook, that "marked differentiation in the preparation of rural elementary teachers would be unwise, and it would seem most advantageous to prepare prospective rural and urban teachers in the same professional school."² This same conviction has also been expressed by Bachman,³ and more recently it has been affirmed by the National Survey Committee⁴ and the Committee of College Teachers.⁵ In this connection it is significant to note that field work in both urban and rural schools is required of all normal school students in all four provinces.⁶

At the 1929 convention of the Canadian Educational Association, Strayer attacked the Canadian single-curriculum plan most vigorously, contending that "we cannot take our shotgun and do a professional job by simply trying to hit everything at once."⁷ He thus criticized the typical Canadian curriculum in the light of the trend towards differentiation which has been so manifest in the American four-year teachers' colleges, and advocated similar colleges for Western Canada, in which there would be ample time and leeway for specialization. However, in Western Canada it does not seem feasible or desirable to provide pre-service professional curriculums of two continuous years for elementary school teachers, nor to provide for much differentiation within the pre-service curriculums.⁸ The amount of specialization provided in

¹Pp. 14-15, 131-133.

²K. M. Cook, Professional Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools, p. 18. United States Office of Education, Bulletin, 1928, No. 6. Washington; Government Printing Office, 1928.

³F. B. Bachman, Education and Certification of Elementary Teachers, pp. 65-67. Nashville: Peabody College, 1933.

⁴National Society, op.cit., p. 236.

⁵Ibid., p. 216.

⁶Pp. 147-148.

⁷Canadian Educational Association, op.cit., p. 40.

⁸Pp. 14-15, 131-133

the curriculums of the two-year colleges of England¹ could hardly be provided in Western Canada, because in the latter area there is much greater need for generalist teachers. A better pattern might possibly be found in the two-year curriculums of the American normal schools and teachers' colleges, in the majority of which very few electives are offered.² A still better pattern might be found in a development of the Manitoba plan,³ where the electives are offered in the post-probation summer school sessions.

The Manitoba or Ontario plans make feasible the offering of electives which serve as avenues of development for special interests and capacities. Specialization can be carried out fairly intelligently in the second year of the Ontario plan or in the summer school sessions of the Manitoba plan, for the teachers have had one or two years of probation teaching and thus possess a greater knowledge of their own capacities and interests.

If there are to be no electives in the first basic year of normal school preparation it follows that all the courses of the curriculum must be organized into a unified program, designed to give the students a broad understanding of the elementary school curriculum and methodology and to enable them to develop as effectively as possible the basic teaching skills and attributes.

B. The Methods Courses of the Universities

Required comprehensive courses versus elective special courses.- In Chapter V it was shown that the programs of "special methods" courses of the university departments of education differ greatly from each other.⁴ The most noticeable difference is that found between the Manitoba and British Columbia programs on the one hand and the Alberta and Saskatchewan programs on the other. The former consist chiefly of a series of separate methods courses, several of these courses being required in Manitoba, and most of them being optional in British Columbia. Each of the Alberta and Saskatchewan methods programs consists in the main of a large com-

¹International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, pp. 447-80.

²G. C. Kyte, "Specific Requirements in the Two-Year Curricula in Representative Teachers' Colleges and Normal Schools." Educational Administration and Supervision, XVII, (September, 1931), pp. 401-16.

³Pp. 93-94.

⁴Pp. 208 ff.

prehensive methods course required of all the students in the class, wherein the methods and curriculum of most of the school subjects are studied.

One of the most serious problems that has arisen concerning the comprehensive methods courses of Alberta and Saskatchewan is that in these courses no one of the school subjects can be given adequate consideration with respect to its curriculum organization, its content, or its methodology.¹ A short series of from five to ten lectures or discussions seems hardly sufficient for dealing with the pedagogy of a high school subject. On the other hand, each of these broad courses makes provision for numerous associations between the subjects, and also many broad and important generalizations relating to curriculum and method. One of the chief reasons for the establishment of the comprehensive methods course at Edmonton and Saskatoon was that in the prairie provinces a very large percentage of the teachers must teach three or more subjects.² It is for a similar reason that university graduates at Winnipeg have been required to take all of the lectures dealing with the work of Grades VII, VIII, and IX.³ Although the percentage of specialist or semi-specialist positions is greater in British Columbia than in any of the other western provinces,⁴ evidence is at hand that even in that province there is need for broadening the teacher's preparation.⁵ The recommendation of a teachers' committee of British Columbia that "specialization be encouraged in one or more subjects, since eighty-five per cent of the teaching positions in the high schools offer opportunities for specialization,"⁶ should be considered in the light of the fact that many of the young high school teachers of British Columbia are unable for several years after their graduation to secure positions that call for the teaching of their special subjects only, while some of them have been unable to get work that even includes the teaching of those subjects. This same assertion would hold true of many of the less

¹Pp. 214-16.

²Pp. 13-15, 224-25, 227.

³P. 207.

⁴P. 227.

⁵Pp. 224-25, 227.

⁶High School Teachers' Association of Lower Mainland of British Columbia, Report on the Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools, p. 3. Vancouver; 1930.

densely populated areas of the United States.¹ The requirement of narrow specialization may or may not be desirable in such thickly populated countries as Germany² and eastern United States.³ As has been stated, both the National Survey Committee and the Committee of the National Society insist upon the necessity of competence in at least two broad fields.⁴ There appears to be every justification for such a policy in Western Canada.

It is a question which is the better arrangement, that of a broad and comprehensive technique course to be taken by all, or that of a series of separate and optional technique courses.⁵ The former arrangement might be the best for provinces with an unusually large percentage of "generalist" teachers. In the case of British Columbia it might be desirable to have as electives not narrow special methods courses such as those at present offered in French, Latin, history, physics, chemistry, etc., but rather methods courses in a few broad fields or groupings of fields, such as English, social studies, classical and modern languages, and sciences and mathematics. Obviously, the solution to the foregoing problem depends in large measure upon the extent of the demand for specialist or semi-specialist teachers. According to the Committee of the National Society, opportunities for specialization should be provided in the following secondary-school fields: English language and literature, social sciences, natural sciences, arithmetic and mathematics, foreign languages, fine arts, music, health education, industrial arts, household science, and business education.⁶ It might be that special methods courses corresponding to these broad fields would be better than the provisions made at the present time. They would certainly be broader, richer, and more professionalized than the special methods courses at present

¹E. W. Anderson, "Major and Minor Subjects Taught by Graduates of Colleges of Education," Educational Administration and Supervision, XVIII (May, 1932), 327-33.

²International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, p. 562.

³Earl V. Rugg, unpublished study concerning the four-year curriculums of sixty-six teachers' colleges, 1932.

⁴p. 279.

⁵National Survey Committee, op. cit., VI, 102.

⁶National Society, op. cit., p. 87.

being given at Winnipeg and Vancouver.¹

Preparation of teachers for commerce, household science, etc.- At the present time teachers of household science, commerce, and manual training and industrial arts are not prepared at the universities, but rather in various miscellaneous institutions.² The question arises whether this distinction is desirable. The preparation of these teachers at the university might add necessary prestige to the subjects, and might widen the conceptions of the scope of the high school and university curriculums which are entertained by teachers and by the lay public. Furthermore, it might ensure for these teachers more of a liberal education and cultural background than that possessed by their predecessors.

Adequacy of the university methods courses.- Study of the data upon the university methods courses provokes several questions as to their quality and efficiency.³ Many of the professors who give or contribute to them do not seem to be closely enough in touch with the work of the high schools. The courses seem too academic, too little professionalized. Sufficient attention does not seem to be paid to problems of selection and organization of curriculum materials. There is apparently insufficient coordination of the special methods courses with the course in educational psychology or with the field experiences of the students. The objectives of the special courses have not always been thought out clearly and kept to the forefront. Again, there seems to be much reviewing of university subject matter. Putman and Weir's recommendation that the methods courses contain less reviewing of subject matter might be directed towards certain of the university methods courses as well as towards the normal school courses.⁴

Suggestions for the improvement of the special-methods

¹For a description of important features of the proposed type of course see A. W. Hurd, "Some Aspects of the Education of Teachers of Science," Educational Administration and Supervision, XX (January, 1934), 38-44.

²Pp. 253 ff.

³Pp. 206 ff. See also the files of examination papers at the University of British Columbia for the years 1930-1936.

⁴J.H. Putman and G.M. Weir, Survey of the School System of British Columbia, p. 229. Victoria: King's Printer, 1925.

courses can be gathered from the writings of various leaders.¹ Gray recommends that there be "breadth as well as depth of specialization in the subjects or fields to be taught."² This would apply to the special-methods courses as well as the antecedent academic courses. Learned and Bagley contend that "in these courses the specific organization of materials . . . should be fully discussed, and the approved methods of teaching should be both exemplified and justified."³ Mead believes that all methods courses should be linked up with observation in the schools.⁴ Judd's emphasis on the importance of developing the concept that education is a science is as applicable to the special methods courses as it is to the general education courses.⁵

According to Rugg and Peik the special methods courses should no longer be thought of as being merely "methods" courses.⁶ There are indications that this narrow and unnatural conception is passing.⁷ The title and description of the Alberta course, "The Science and Practice of Teaching," and the data which have been presented about the course, show that it would rank high according to the criteria which have been cited,⁸ and several of the methods courses of the other universities also show signs of improvement.

Observation and Practice Teaching

Observation and practice teaching have always been re-

¹National Society, op. cit., pp. 113 ff.

²W.S.Gray, "Needed Readjustments in Teacher Training," Zeta News, XVII, p. 10. Chicago, 1933.

³W.S.Learned and W.C.Bagley, The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools, p. 393. New York: Carnegie Foundation, 1920.

⁴Mead, op. cit., p. 836.

⁵R.A.Kent et al., Higher Education in America, p. 190. Boston: Ginn, 1930.

⁶National Society, op. cit., p. 113.

⁷American Historical Association, Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies, pp. 70-72. New York: Scribners, 1934.

⁸University of Alberta, Calendar, 1932-33.

garded as essential features of the pedagogical curriculum in Western Canada.¹ This is about as far as one can go in making a generalization, for the quality, arrangements, and time allotments for observation and practice teaching differ exceedingly from one area to another.² There is no evidence that experimental proof of the relative values of these activities has been sought, obtained, or used. The problem as to what should be the nature of the field work appears to be one of the major problems of teacher education in Western Canada. Several aspects of this will be discussed in the ensuing pages.

Demonstration schools.— It has been shown that in most centers observation and practice teaching are carried on in the regular public school classes.³ For many years both the Winnipeg and Vancouver normal schools made use of model schools, where the students carried on most of their teaching as well as most of their observation.⁴ Faults and limitations were apparently found in this arrangement, for the plan was adopted of using the public schools as cooperating schools, and the model schools were turned over to the city authorities.⁵ There seems to be little likelihood that the old arrangement of exclusive or near-exclusive use of model schools of the old type will be revived. However, the principals of the Winnipeg and Vancouver normal schools have repeatedly expressed their desire for a demonstration school, this to be used in conjunction with the cooperating city and rural schools as a center for the demonstration of superior methods, and not mainly for combined observation and practice teaching as were the old model schools.⁶ All of the university heads have expressed the same desire.⁷ Opinion favorable to the establishment of such schools is slowly crystallizing in Western Canada.⁸ Arrangements for their acquisition and development could be made at very little expense, for there is a school building situated

¹Pp. 135 ff., 220 ff.

²Ibid.

³Pp. 143 ff., 222 ff.

⁴Pp. 135, 139.

⁵Pp. 135, 140.

⁶P. 153.

⁷P. 229.

⁸Putman and Weir, op. cit., p. 234; also High School Teachers' Association of the Lower Mainland of British Columbia, op. cit., p. 4.

in fairly close proximity to each of the universities which could be taken over and restaffed through arrangements made between the provincial department, the university, and the city school board. The desirability and feasibility of such a step is obviously an important problem.

In England the use made of "model schools" or "demonstration schools" by the training colleges varies greatly in nature and extent.¹ In Prussia the new pedagogical academies have practice schools affiliated with them and under their full control.² The students observe and teach both in these schools and in the other schools of the neighborhood. In the United States the majority of the normal schools and teachers' colleges maintain campus demonstration schools.³ In a large number of centers use is made both of the campus schools and of the city and neighborhood schools.

The Yearbook Committee emphasises the importance of control by the staff of the training institution over observation and teaching situations, and recommends that "one or more of the practice schools should be on or immediately adjacent to the campus."⁴ Evenden, Rugg, and Peik advocate the provision of both campus and off-campus facilities.⁵ Pearce and Williams report that "the prevailing conception of the place of the training school, among the heads of teachers' colleges, is that it stands at the heart of . . . the institution." Again, they report that "there is a tendency to shift the burden of practice teaching to off-campus centers, leaving the campus training school for demonstration teaching and experimentation."⁶

According to the standards of the American Association of Teachers' Colleges, "Every teachers' college or normal school shall maintain a training school for purposes of observation,

¹International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, pp. 478-80.

²Ibid., p. 538.

³United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1931, No. 20, pp. 29, 38, 62.

⁴National Society, op. cit., pp. 168 and 226.

⁵Ibid., pp. 182, 185.

⁶Pearce and Williams, op. cit., p. 625.

demonstration, and supervised teaching. The use of an urban or rural school system under sufficient control and supervision of the college will satisfy this requirement."¹ Since "sufficiency of control and supervision" is a matter of degree, it might be said that all of the normal schools of Western Canada measure up to the latter standard. However, if "sufficiency of control" is defined in the terms laid down by various leaders, such as the control over the selection of the critic teachers and competent supervision,² then some of these normal schools would be found deficient.³

Special demonstrations elsewhere than in demonstration schools.- The great majority of the lessons taught for demonstration purposes are taught by the critic teachers of the co-operating public elementary schools. The demonstration teaching done by teachers who are selected for their work more or less at random cannot be of sufficiently high quality, yet this arrangement is commonly found in the various centers of teacher education. Concerning demonstration teaching given by normal school instructors or by special teachers, it has been shown that such a feature is lacking in some of the normal school programs, and that it is of minor importance in most of the others.⁴ At the present time an interesting plan is being tried out at Vancouver during the autumn terms.⁵ Special field demonstrators have been selected, these being considered in a category separate from but supplementary to that of the regular critic teachers. The plan has this disadvantage, that the brief time spent by the student-teachers with their regular critic teachers has been still further abbreviated.⁶ On the other hand, the plan has the advantage of providing demonstrations of high quality. It also makes possible group conferences in the classroom of each special demonstrator, with fifteen or more students in each group and with one of the

¹American Association of Teachers' Colleges, Standards for Accrediting Teachers' Colleges and Normal Schools, 1932, p. 2.

²National Society, op. cit., pp. 12, 145, 184, 226.

³Pp. 143 ff.

⁴Pp. 146-147.

⁵Under the university auspices (see p. 221).

⁶P. 226.

professors of the university department present to take part in every discussion.

An interesting arrangement is that in use at Edmonton, where a limited number of carefully selected "special demonstrators" has been chosen from the city schools.¹ Dr. Lazerte is well satisfied with the arrangement.² His demonstrators receive a small remuneration. It is small, yet it has served, together with the special recognition given, to develop an ardent zeal for the work. This contrasts greatly with the half-hearted cooperation of numerous critic teachers in the other university centers, who are requisitioned for the work without any prospect of extra remuneration or special recognition. The testimony of Dr. Lazerte suggests that the other universities might well experiment with the plan in use in Alberta.³

According to Frazier, "considerable demand has arisen in the United States for the investigation of the relative advantages of well-conducted demonstration work as compared with actual student teaching. . . . Both practice and demonstration appear to be needed."⁴ It would seem that great improvement is needed in Western Canada in most of the centers if the ideal of "well conducted demonstration work" is to be reached.⁵

Use of public schools.— The plan of sending student-teachers to the city schools for observation and practice seems on the whole to have proved acceptable, in spite of its many faults.⁶ The same plan has been followed extensively in England,⁷ Germany,⁸ and the United States.⁹ Carelessness in the selection of critic teachers has detracted from its effectiveness, at least in Canada. Obviously there could have been little selection of

1p. 222.

²Ibid.

³National Society, op. cit., p. 184. Some Canadian leaders, e.g. Dr. P. Sandiford, doubt the wisdom of giving special remuneration to critic teachers (conference with Dr. Sandiford, August, 1935).

⁴B. W. Frazier, Professional Education of Teachers, p. 30.

⁵Pp. 141 ff., 220 ff. ⁶Ibid.

⁷International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, pp. 479, 481.

⁸Ibid., pp. 538 and 555.

⁹Pearce and Williams, op. cit., p. 625.

critic teachers in small cities of the size of Brandon, Saskatoon, or Edmonton during the years of exceedingly large normal school enrolments.¹ With the adoption of limitation schemes much more careful selection has become possible, because with fewer students in a normal school fewer critic teachers are needed. Unfortunately, in most centers no evidence can be found that careful selection is being made.

Length of field periods.—Length of field periods seems to be another important consideration. In five normal schools and three universities the students do a little observation and teaching every week;² in one normal school and one university the students observe every week and also teach for one consecutive week each month; while in five normal schools the students spend two two-week or three-week periods in the city schools.³ In the Vancouver normal school a change was made a few years ago from the scattered-lesson plan to the plan of having one week of field work per month.⁴ This change seems to be an improvement, because it has made possible more consecutive field experience for the student-teachers and has thus given them the opportunity to know their classes and critic teachers better, to see some of the results of their own teaching, and to build on foundations of teaching which they themselves have laid. The question arises whether these same values might not be achieved to a still greater extent under the plan of two-week or three-week periods.

The plan followed at the University of British Columbia has certain serious defects.⁵ The students observe during two half-days per week for two or three weeks prior to each teaching period, observing each time under two or more teachers.⁶ The city high school principals are asked to let students observe under those teachers who will be supervising the practice teaching. The majority of the principals try to carry out this arrangement, but every year it is discovered that several have deviated from it.

1Pp. 162-163.

2Pp. 144-145, 222-223.

³Ibid.

⁴ P. 141.

⁵ High School Teachers' Association, op.cit., p. 3. (The writer has been in charge of field work at Vancouver.)

⁶ P. 223.

During the teaching week each student is supposed to be teaching under not more than three teachers and for a total of at least ten lessons.¹ Theoretically this could make possible a sequence of from three to five lessons in each of the major fields and one short sequence in the minor field. Actually it has been found that some of the principals place the student-teachers under four, five, or even six teachers. Also it has been found that some of the three-lesson or four-lesson "sequences" are not sequences with the same class of pupils. In all centers it is found that only a small number of the students have the opportunity of teaching several continuous lessons in the one subject, to the same class, and under the same critic teacher. Possibly the normal schools and universities could devise an arrangement which would provide more effectively for all three kinds of continuity. Many of the principals definitely favor having longer field periods.²

In Germany a probation teacher spends a full year in each of two schools.³ Field periods of a quarter or even a semester are common in the United States.⁴ The German plan has the disadvantage of tying the student-teacher too closely to one particular school and to one particular set of personalities, but it does have the advantage of providing for consecutive experience with the same staff and the same pupils.

Practice teaching arrangements vary a great deal in the United States.⁵ Plans for the improvement of field work are frequently being described in educational journals. Mead and Hill posit as one of the chief features of their proposed curriculums a long period of field experience, with but one teacher and one

¹pp. 223, 225-226.

²pp. 153-54.

³Kandel, History of Secondary Education, p. 278; also International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, pp. 562-3.

⁴J. E. Corbally, "the Supervision of Student Teaching at the University of Washington," Educational Administration and Supervision, XXI (February, 1935), 152-155.

⁵United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1931, No.20, p. 31; also E. S. Evenden, "Issues in Teacher-Training Programs," Educational Administration and Supervision, XVII (October, 1931), p. 532.

class for each student-teacher.¹ Stratemeyer reports that one feature of the plan proposed for New College is a period of internship of one year.² In numerous other projected plans the feature of continuity is prominent.³ In addition to plans, some interesting experiments with continuous periods are being made. Notable among these are the experiments at the University of Hamburg⁴ and at Leipzig Pedagogical Institute.⁵

Time allotments.— The time allotments for observation and practice teaching differ very little from one university to another,⁶ but they differ greatly from one normal school to another, those for observation ranging from eighteen hours at Victoria to ninety hours at Edmonton.⁷ Such a great range leads one to suspect that the principals could not have had any definite knowledge of the needs of their students when making the time allocations, and that they were being guided chiefly by traditional practices, administrative exigencies, or subjective judgments.

Opinions and practices regarding time allotments differ widely in the United States.⁸ Mead contends that from 180 to 200 periods of teaching should constitute the minimum amount, but that the amount should vary according to the needs of the students.⁹ Foster contends that 90 clock-hours of supervised practice should be the minimum.¹⁰ The Yearbook Committee deprecates undue stress upon quantitative requirements, and contends that the "kind, amount, and rate of induction should be adjusted to the ability, experience, and needs of the individual student-teacher."¹¹ There

¹Mead, op.cit., p. 863; also C. M. Hill, A Decade of Progress in Teacher Training, p. 183, Teachers' College Contributions to Education, No. 233. New York: Teachers' College Bureau of Publications, 1927.

²Stratemeyer, op.cit., pp. 357-58.

³W. F. Murra, "Induction of Student-Teachers by Participation," Educational Administration and Supervision, XX (January, 1934), 29-34.

⁴International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, pp. 555-56.

⁵Ibid., p. 548.

⁶P. 225.

⁷Pp. 143, 149.

⁸United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1931, No. 20, p. 29.

⁹Mead, op.cit., p. 858.

¹⁰National Society, op.cit., p. 182. ¹¹Ibid., p. 155.

is at present no indication that a scheme involving formal provision for varying amounts of field experience will be tried in any of the universities of Western Canada. Informal arrangements for minor increases or decreases in the amount of observation and teaching are of course frequently provided. A much more important consideration than that of the amount is of course the quality of the field experience. This obviously depends upon such factors as the ability and interest of the critic teachers, the quality of the supervision of the actual teaching, and the number and quality of the follow-up conferences. The four curriculums appear deficient in these respects.¹

Range and variety of observation and practice teaching.- The prevailing practice in the normal schools is to require that the students observe and teach in several grades and in all or almost all the subjects.² In most of the universities the students have a wide range of observation and practice in their elementary school field work,³ but nevertheless certain large differences of practice appear with respect to the range and variety of high school field experience.⁴ These differences raise the whole question as to what is the desirable grade and subject distribution of observation and practice teaching.⁵

Provisions for observation and practice teaching in rural schools have been made at all the normal schools, and apparently the plan has met with success.⁶ No such provisions have been made at the universities.⁷ It might be that these institutions should follow the example set by the normal schools and assign at least one of their field periods for rural school experience. The rural nature of the prairie provinces, and the large preponderance of small high schools or continuation schools in them,⁸ would seem to justify such a step amply.

Attitudes of the student teacher.- The value of practice teaching is obviously conditioned by the attitude of the student-

¹Pp. 141 ff., 220 ff.

²Pp. 150-151.

³Pp. 226-227.

⁴Ibid.

⁵See principles laid down by National Society, op.cit., pp. 138-144.

⁶Pp. 147-149.

⁷Pp. 224-225.

⁸Pp. 14-15, 224-225, 227.

teacher. This attitude depends upon various factors, one of these being the nature of the critic teachers' reports. At Vancouver a report form was utilized for several years which called for numerical ratings (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) upon twenty listed traits, the critic teacher being expected to enter ratings for all the traits manifested in the lesson.¹ Such a report had certain obvious advantages. One serious disadvantage was that the critic teachers rarely gave detailed written comments in addition to the numerical ratings, although they had been asked to do so. Another disadvantage was that the student-teachers were led to work for marks, thinking too little of their qualitative records of progress. In 1934-35 a report form was adopted which called only for verbal comments from the critic teacher - comments for each separate lesson, and then a general estimate at the end of the teaching week.² At the end of the entire session the professors of the department rate the students numerically, basing their ratings upon the written field reports and upon their own observations. The experiment is being studied with great interest.

A period of interneship.- A view which is becoming common in Western Canada is that the pre-service curriculum should include not only observation and supervised teaching during the normal school session, but also one or two years of closely supervised probation teaching analogous to an interneship in the medical profession, this period of probation to be followed by at least one prescribed summer school session or full-year session wherein discussions concerning the field experiences and problems of the probationers could be conducted.³ The plan has already been adopted for the normal schools in Ontario, Manitoba, and British Columbia, although provisions for systematic and adequate supervision have not yet been made. The question arises whether this plan should be adopted in the other provinces as well, and by the universities as well as by the normal schools. Objective evidence is needed to show whether the period of interneship and the post-probation session would contribute considerably to the development of ability in teaching and class management. Many

¹University of British Columbia, Critic Teacher's Report (1925-1934).

²Ibid., 1935.

³Pp. 93-94.

arguments are available from analogy with other professional programs, such as those for the preparation of lawyers and doctors. Emphatic approval of the feature of internship has been expressed by the Committee of the National Society and by various individual writers.¹

Extra-Curricular Activities

Extra-curricular activities in the normal schools.- Extra-curricular activities have been given a large place in most of the normal schools of Western Canada.² The principals have done much to encourage them, believing them to be of great value for teacher education partly on account of the rapid development of extra-curricular activities in the public schools and partly because of their general developmental value for student-teachers. In most of the normal schools active steps were taken by the first principals to outline and promote athletic and literary organizations.³ One of the earliest general discussions concerning extra-curricular activities took place at the normal school conference in 1919, where the principals adopted a resolution "strongly favoring the development of the social life of the normal schools."⁴ During recent years the books of such men as McKown, Foster, Fretwell, and Roberts and Draper seem to have had considerable influence.

Increasing attention is being paid in the normal schools to such auditorium activities as musical and literary concerts and dramatizations.⁵ Intra-mural athletic activities are becoming more diversified, and a great proportion of the students is participating, especially in the track meets.⁶ Science clubs and art clubs are not found frequently as yet.⁷ In four of the normal schools the students participate in one or more forms of community service.⁸ This is a relatively new activity in Canada, and is only in the experimental stage. It should be noted here that community service

¹National Society, op.cit., pp. 173-185.

²Pp. 155 ff.

³P. 155.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Pp. 157-158.

⁶P. 160.

⁷P. 156.

⁸P. 161.

activities are being emphasized in the new pedagogical academies of Prussia¹ and in several of the teachers' colleges of England.²

In some of the normal schools little effort has been made to plan for the extra-curricular activities as features of the "total curriculum."³ This same shortcoming is found in certain American teachers' colleges.⁴ In the teachers' colleges in England much attention is paid to extra-curricular activities, and in some of them participation is prescribed.⁵

Extra-curricular activities for the student-teacher in the universities.— At each of the four universities the students of the education classes have opportunities to take part in a large variety of extra-curricular activities.⁶ Nevertheless, the percentage of participation is probably less than at the normal schools. The normal school life tends to bring about wide participation, partly because in each center the students take all their classes in the one building and are thus brought together in a very intimate way,⁷ and partly because many of the "extra-curricular" activities have become semi-curricular as a result of the supervision and encouragement of the faculty.⁸ Many of the university students take little or no part in sports or in club and social activities, some of them having acquired retiring and sedentary habits as a result of the very strength of their desire to succeed in their studies.⁹ Participation is very uneven among the students of the Vancouver graduate class with respect both to the number and the nature of extra-curricular activities.¹⁰ This is probably true of the students at the other university centers as well.

¹International Institute, Yearbook, 1927, p. 538.

²London County Council, Avery Hill Training College Prospectus, p. 2; and Furzedown Training College Prospectus, p. 8.

³Pp. 155-156, 170.

⁴Pearce and Williams, op. cit., p. 629.

⁵London County Council, Furzedown Training College Prospectus, p. 8.

⁶Pp. 230 ff.

⁷P. 171.

⁸Pp. 155-156.

⁹P. 230.

¹⁰See for example the final record sheet for the class of 1934-35, Office of the Registrar, University of British Columbia.

Establishing an appreciation of the values of extra-curricular activities and of their relationships to the corresponding curricular activities, outlining ways and means for encouraging extra-curricular activities in the schools, and acquainting the students with the important literature of the field, are services which are being rendered by some of the professors, especially by those who give the courses in psychology, school administration, and history of education.¹ However, there is no evidence to show whether this phase of the work is being carried out systematically and adequately.

Values of extra-curricular activities for teacher education.— The foregoing statements raise the fundamental issue as to whether the extra-curricular activities of a normal school have any considerable value from the point of view of teacher education. Some of the normal school principals must have thought so, otherwise they would not have fostered them so assiduously. Such also is the opinion of outside investigators.² A large section of the list of teachers' traits and activities compiled by Charters and Waples relates to extra-curricular activities in the public schools.³ One would infer from this that preparation for such activities should be made in the normal school programs. The members of the National Survey Committee,⁴ the Committee of the National Society,⁵ and various individual writers are definitely of this opinion.⁶ The Committee of the National Society contends that the experiences commonly known as "extra-curricular" should become in a real sense integral parts of the curriculum, and enumerates as important such features as guidance, informal conferences, round table discussions, clubs, and various literary, musical, athletic, and social activities.⁷

¹See for example the course outlines at Vancouver.

²National Society, op.cit., pp. 95-96, 117-119.

³Charters and Waples, op.cit., pp. 282-88.

⁴National Society, op.cit., pp. 117-19.

⁵Ibid., pp. 95-96.

⁶See for example R. Pulliam, "Some Principles to be Observed in making a Teacher-Training Curriculum," Educational Administration and Supervision, XX (February, 1934), 110; also articles by P. F. Valentine and R. H. Morrison in same volume.

⁷National Society, op.cit., pp. 95-96.

It may be inadvisable to have too many organized activities in a one-year normal school, and the normal school principals have expressed themselves as opposed to an overloading of this kind.¹ However, it might be that those activities which are to be encouraged could be more greatly diversified, better planned, and better supervised, and a greater number of students led to participate in them.

The development of traits of personality.- A very large and significant problem relates to the development of personality traits during the year or years of professional preparation. The Committee of the National Society contends that "the curriculum should include opportunities and experiences designed to develop those personal, social and professional qualities that characterize a good teacher," and goes on to assert that merely sitting through courses will not develop personality.² It is interesting to speculate as to how much could be done in the extra-curricular life of a normal school to develop desirable habits, attitudes, and ideals. It seems apparent that normal school and university instructors both in Western Canada and elsewhere have been too much concerned with teaching their courses, and too little concerned with a consciously planned program for promoting the growth of character and culture in their students. It may be that even in a one-year professional session considerable development of personality traits can be fostered. The principle enunciated by the Committee of the National Society should provoke much thought among the normal school instructors of Western Canada.

Integration of Curriculum Elements

Integration of elements in the normal school curriculums.- Only a small amount of evidence is available concerning the extent of the integration of the curriculum in each of the Western Canadian normal schools. There does seem to be definite evidence of improvement in relating the observations of the student-teachers to their experiences in practice teaching.³ Furthermore, owing

¹ Replies to Questionnaire, Part F, Q. 13.

² National Society, op.cit., p. 95.

³ Pp. 141 ff.

to the fact that most of the normal school instructors go out into the schools during the teaching weeks, there are numerous possibilities for correlating the normal school courses with the field work.¹ Whether or not these possibilities are sufficiently realized is a moot question. The instructors hold numerous conferences with the students after the return of the latter from their field work.² Perhaps these conferences could be improved. Perhaps they should be increased in number. Possibly the instructors should make more frequent references to the specific field experiences of the students in their lectures on methods, curriculum, and classroom management.

The inter-correlations among the general courses in education and among the special methods courses appear to vary in effectiveness from center to center, although little definite evidence on this matter is available.³ The same assertion holds true for the correlations between the general methods courses on the one hand and the special methods courses on the other.⁴ Wherever certain courses are given by the same instructor, or wherever course groupings or mergers have been effected, there integration has naturally been facilitated.⁵

Correlation of extra-curricular with curricular activities seems to have been effected to a considerable extent in some of the normal schools.⁶ It is open to question whether the values of extra-class activities as supplementing the values of the various subjects have been fully realized by the majority of the special-methods instructors.

Discussions at faculty meetings, informal conferences of instructors, exchanges of course outlines, etc., are possible methods of effecting correlation. Unfortunately little evidence as to the extent of their utilization is available.⁷ Obviously the responsibility for promoting these methods of correlating the work lies largely with the principal of each school.

¹Pp. 145-146.

²P. 146.

³Pp. 100 ff., 125 ff., 167-170. ⁴P. 170.

⁵Pp. 126-27, 169; see also examples of course groupings or mergers in Table X.

⁶Pp. 155 ff., 170.

⁷Pp. 169-171.

Integration of elements in the university curriculums.-

The four university curriculums appear to be seriously deficient in their provisions for integration or unification of the various curriculum elements.¹ There are of course some factors conducive to integration. One factor is the smallness of each of the four staffs.² Obviously, the smaller the staff the more likelihood there is that the instructors will know about each others' work. Another favorable factor is the grouping of all the student-teachers at each university center into one class for all the prescribed courses. In no center is there sectioning of the education class. Still another favorable factor, operative at Edmonton and Saskatoon, is the provision of comprehensive methods courses in place of numerous separate methods courses.³ Nevertheless, many possible provisions for coordination are lacking. There is no evidence that course outlines are systematically exchanged by the professors,⁴ or that exchanging of information about the various courses takes place to any great extent through faculty meetings or through informal conversations.⁵ At Vancouver the situation is especially bad, for the academic-field professors who give the high school special methods courses do not make course outlines, nor do they exchange much information concerning their courses with each other or with the full-time professors of the department of education.⁶

Correlation of the classroom work with the field work is facilitated by the fact that the professors who give the general courses also participate in the supervision of the field work.⁷ Unfortunately the special methods professors at Vancouver rarely go out into the field during the teaching period. This contrasts sharply with the Alberta arrangement, whereby the special field demonstrators who contribute lectures to the comprehensive technique course also supervise the field work.⁸ The latter arrangement most certainly provides for better correlation than that found in Vancouver.

¹Pp. 234 ff.

²P. 176 ff.

³Pp. 214 ff.

⁴P. 235.

⁵Ibid.

⁶P. 213.

⁷Pp. 178, 223-224.

⁸Ibid.

Correlation of curricular with extra-curricular activities is quite haphazard at all four centers.¹ There is no evidence that conscious efforts have been made by the special methods professors to correlate with their courses the corresponding extra-curricular activities. In this respect the universities differ markedly from the normal schools, in several of which a fairly effective correlation has been realized.²

The major issue.— The foregoing evidence raises the broad question of cohesion, coordination, or integration.³ If the elements of the normal school and university curriculums could be more closely integrated, a considerable improvement in the quality of the curriculum and of each of its constituent elements would probably result. Already some of the curriculums seem better than others from this point of view. Perhaps even these superior curriculums could be integrated still more effectively.

Need for Study and Experimentation; Agencies Responsible
for Investigation and Reform; Need for More Effective
Application of Present Knowledge

The need for study and experimentation.— The discussions in the foregoing paragraphs indicate that numerous problems confront those who are engaged in teacher education in Western Canada. Some of these problems have presented themselves quite vividly to the majority of the instructors, while the import of other problems has probably been realized by only a few. The question arises whether the provincial educational authorities and the staffs of the various institutions have taken sufficient advantage of the rapidly increasing body of knowledge which relates to teacher education. They certainly have not embarked together upon any systematic program of study and experimentation, even with respect to those problems which are more or less peculiar to Western Canada and to the individual provinces. Much of the wasted effort of the past might have been avoided had such a systematic study been carried out.

Agencies responsible for investigation and reform.—

1) The ministers and superintendents of education. In the Dominion of Canada the responsibility for education rests primarily

¹ Pp. 230-234.

² Pp. 155-161.

³National Society, op. cit., p. 147.

upon the provincial governments.¹ In each province the minister of education, the council of public instruction, and the provincial department of education have control over all educational services, including teacher education and teacher certification. The minister of education is the most influential and powerful person in the province as regards initiating reforms in education or bringing them into effect.² The non-political head of the department of education, variously called the deputy minister or the superintendent of education, is the person who next to the minister has the greatest power to effect reforms.³ Usually the ministers and deputy ministers have sought the advice of the heads of the university departments and the normal school principals before making any radical changes in teacher education.

The history of teacher education in each of the four provinces is a mixed narrative of periods of inertia and periods of progress.⁴ It is true that the ministers and deputy ministers have often been quick to take action to meet pressing needs of teacher supply, and to effect reforms which were universally recognized as desirable and financially feasible. Furthermore, several examples of careful planning are to be found.⁵ Nevertheless, there has been a large amount of mere trial-and-error legislation and executive action, whereby changes have been made more or less abruptly to meet immediate exigencies or to experiment with insufficiently considered theories.⁶ There has not been sufficient provision for systematic study of the problems of teacher education, nor for the planning of long-term programs.⁷

2) Provincial bureaus of research. The question arises whether or not the provincial governments should establish bureaus of educational research, as has been done in certain states in

¹British North America Act, Section VI, Subsection 93 (W. F. Dyde, op. cit., p. 235).

²See for example British Columbia Manual of School Law, sections 12 and 13.

³Ibid., sections 4, 5, and 6.

⁴Pp. 22-53.

⁵Ibid. (See for example p. 25.)

⁶Ibid.

⁷No evidence of such systematic study or planning could be found.

the United States.¹ Possibly a modest provincial bureau of research, consisting of even one person, could do much to promote systematic study and experimentation in the field of education. For investigations in the subordinate field of teacher education the official or officials of the bureau should be able to count on the full cooperation of all the normal school and university instructors.

3) Interprovincial conferences between ministers and superintendents. No provision has been made by the departments of education of the western provinces for systematic and continuous co-operation with one another with respect to teacher education and other matters. However, from time to time certain of the ministers and deputy ministers of education of the western provinces have met informally to discuss mutual problems, such as those of teacher supply and demand, teacher education, and certification.² Such meetings are not held at regular times, but they are probably of considerable value, for they serve as a means of exchanging information and opinions and of clarifying certain common problems. Possibly such meetings could be held at regular intervals, and the various discussions of the ministers and superintendents on teacher education made more specific. Among the problems appropriate for discussion at such interprovincial conferences are those relating to teacher supply and demand, interprovincial movement of teachers, equating of the certificates of the various provinces, desirable forms of standardization of teacher education, and elimination of duplication of work in the professional preparation of advanced specialists, e.g. in the fields of music, art, household science, and manual training. Conceivably also, arrangements could be made for joint investigations on those major problems of teacher education which are of interprovincial significance. It might be feasible for the ministers and deputy ministers of Western Canada to meet once every two or three years. Occasional meetings representative of the whole of Canada might also be fea-

¹W. S. Monroe, *Ten Years of Educational Research*, pp. 66-67. University of Illinois Bulletin XXV, 1928, No. 51. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1928.

²These meetings are not reported officially.

sible. Possibly one Dominion meeting every three or four years would suffice. Such meetings might be instrumental in focussing the attention of the ministers and superintendents upon those problems of teacher education which are of importance to all the provinces, and in stimulating to thought and action the ministers of those provinces which are lethargic or unduly conservative.

4) The normal schools and universities. In each province the individual normal schools and university departments enjoy a large measure of freedom for curriculum experimentation.¹ The reports of the normal school principals show that in several centers a certain amount of experimentation has been carried on.² Unfortunately most of this has been desultory, unsystematic, poorly recorded, and inadequately reported.

5) Provincial associations and conferences of instructors or professors of education. There are provincial associations of normal school instructors, but there are no associations embracing both normal school and university instructors. Typically the normal school associations are lacking in virility, and are at present doing very little to promote research in teacher education. There seems to be no good reason why they could not embark upon vigorous programs of research, working in close cooperation with the proposed bureaus of research of the provincial departments of education.

6) Interprovincial conferences of normal school and university principals and instructors. Occasionally the normal school principals have held interprovincial conventions in order to discuss common problems of aims, curriculum, method, and administration. The convention held in Edmonton in 1919 proved to be especially stimulating and fruitful.³ Such conventions have been few and far between, and have usually been initiated by the provincial departments rather than by the normal school principals. In Western Canada there is no interprovincial association for the workers in the field of teacher education, nor does there exist any national

¹The evidence is found throughout Chapter IV, in the numerous differences between the normal school curriculums.

²See the reports of the normal school principals in the provincial reports on education; also pp. 22 ff.

³P. 340.

professional organization corresponding to the National Society of College Teachers of Education or the American Association of Teachers' Colleges. Perhaps such an association should be formed. If so, it would logically have among its functions the promotion of investigations and reforms. It might be feasible to have three regional associations of normal school and university instructors, one for Western Canada, one for Ontario and Quebec, and one for the Maritime Provinces. Perhaps a Dominion Association should be formed, to meet biennially or triennially and to have as one of its major functions the conduct of investigations of various kinds.

7) Teachers' associations and conventions. Matters concerning teacher education are discussed frequently at the annual conventions of the provincial teachers' associations,¹ and also at the conventions of the Canadian Teachers' Federation,² but very few investigations in the field of teacher education have been sponsored as yet by these organizations.³ University and normal school instructors do not attend the teachers' conventions except as guests or speakers. The teachers probably feel reluctant to initiate investigations in the field of a different group of workers. Investigations concerning teacher tenure and teacher supply and demand have occasionally been suggested, but no research of great significance has been carried out. Perhaps representatives of the normal schools or universities should be taken into the memberships of the teachers' organizations in order to effect a better liaison. Possibly joint investigations might also be sponsored, in order to arouse widespread interest as well as to discover factual data and solutions to problems.

8) A Dominion bureau of education. There is still one more agency in Canada which is capable of conducting investigations in the field of teacher education. This is the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, a bureau which is subsidiary to the Dominion Ministry of Trade and Commerce. This bureau publishes yearly the Annual

¹See for example the reports of the annual conventions published in The British Columbia Teacher, Vancouver, British Columbia.

²Minutes of the conventions of the Canadian Teachers' Federation.

³One of the few is referred to on page 294, that of an association subordinate to the British Columbia Teachers' Federation.

Survey of Education in Canada, a report which is mainly statistical in nature.¹ A small section of this report is regularly devoted to statistics concerning the enrollments of the various teacher-preparatory institutions of Canada. Very few data are presented regarding the curriculums of the latter institutions. It might be desirable for the bureau to expand that section of its report which pertains to teacher education. Perhaps the time is near at hand when a bureau or office of education similar to that at Washington should be established, quite distinct from the present bureau of statistics. It seems logical to expect that such a bureau of education would be the best agency for initiating Dominion-wide investigations, for gathering and interpreting the numerous facts that are available about teacher education in Canada, and for coordinating the investigations carried on in the provinces by the various provincial agencies of research.

The need for applying present knowledge.- It seems apparent from the facts presented in the preceding chapters that those responsible for teacher education in Western Canada have not always applied the knowledge which is available about teacher education with sufficient understanding or vigor. It is admitted that numerous divergencies of theory and practice exist, which cannot be harmonized as yet because of lack of knowledge. Nevertheless, a considerable body of knowledge relating to teacher education has already been gathered in a number of countries, and the failure to apply that knowledge cannot be defended. There seem to be unjustifiable deficiencies in the curriculums of Western Canada in at least the following respects: the formulation of a basic educational philosophy; agreement upon the general objectives of teacher education; insistence upon those desirable university and normal entrance requirements which are feasible at the present time; provision for a broad, rich, and well-planned foundation of general education for prospective teachers; provision for general courses in education and special-methods courses which are of the greatest possible professional value; provision of adequate opportunities for observing high-grade teaching; provision of adequate facilities for sequential or follow-up teaching; adequate supervision of practice teaching by carefully selected critic teachers; coordination of the various courses with each other; coordination of course

¹Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Annual Survey of Education in Canada. Ottawa: King's Printer.

work with field work; provision of adequate preparation for leadership in the extra-curricular life of the public schools; provision of definite ways and means of fostering growth in personality during the year of professional education; and provision of a well-supervised period of interneship. Improvement in these various respects need not wait upon the solution of all the problems of teacher education.

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- Dr. R. Fletcher, Deputy Minister of Education, Manitoba Department of Education.
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